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**GLOBALIZATION WITHIN SPORT DISCOURSE: A MIXED
METHOD CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS OF THE 1984, 2000,
AND 2008 OLYMPIC GAMES' NEWSPAPER COVERAGE**

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**Globalization Within Sport Discourse: A Mixed Method Critical
Discourse Analysis of the 1984, 2000, and 2008 Olympic Games’
Newspaper Coverage**

by

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Dissertation

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Dedication

To my Parents

To my Brothers

Thank You All

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**Globalization Within Sport Discourse: A Mixed Method Critical
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Seth Adam Kessler, Ph.D.

The University of Texas at Austin, 2015

Supervisor: Thomas M. Hunt

Abstract: The goal of this study was to analyze nine different newspapers’ coverage of three separate Olympic Games (i.e., 1984, 2000, and 2008) in order to determine how the globalization of sport was discussed, how this discourse reflected the power relations within international sport, and what sport management implications could be extracted. Globalization is an axial theme of the current era and is applicable to discussions of international sport. Sport has been characterized as a highly profitable, largely popular, and globally networked cultural form (Smart, 2007) that serves both as a source and a product of globalization (Eitzen, 2012), and, on a more practical level, as a global product and service (Ratten & Ratten, 2011). Houlihan (2007) reiterates the importance of globalization, stating that it has become one of the most prominent research concepts in the social sciences, including sport studies. An additional goal of this study was to critically evaluate sport journalism, as an often-overlooked aspect of journalism, and demonstrate linkages between media coverage and sport management practices. Sport—especially international, professional, and collegiate sport—and sporting ideals are intimately intertwined and attached to the sport media, and the sport media has both beneficial and detrimental influence over sporting and social norms. Sport management scholars should continue to critically examine and further understand the interplay between sport management, the sport media, and the power of discourse. Results indicate

that treatment of globalization within the sport discourse evolved over time, and the understandings and presentations of globalization and its relationship to sport became more nuanced and sophisticated. Findings provide additional support for the dynamic nature of discourse, suggest the importance of conscientious and critical monitoring, and indicate the need to adapt best practices to reflect the changes in discourse, particularly in regards to influential phenomenon such as globalization. The research findings of this study will be of interest to sport management and globalization studies scholars and sport practitioners who are interested in understanding how discourse influences concept proliferation, power relations, policy creation, organizational and economic forecasting, strategic management, and other management practices.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

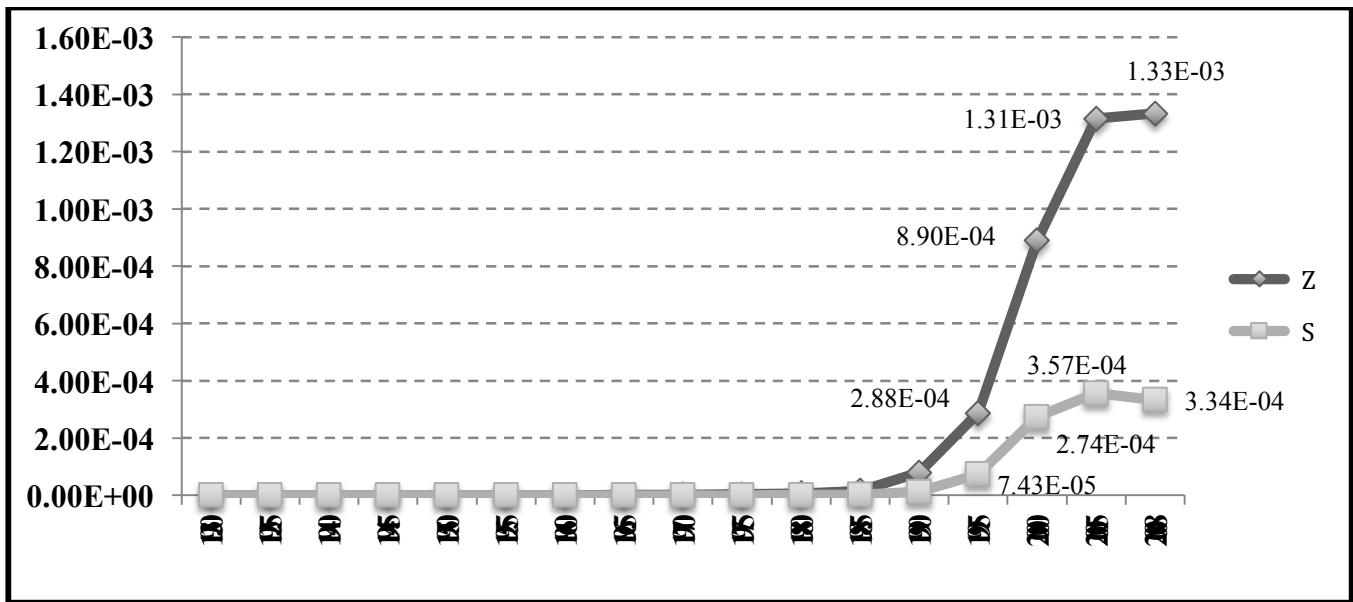
The last several decades has witnessed sport management's and globalization studies' simultaneous, yet distinctive growth and maturation. Sport management emerged as an academic discipline in the late 1960s and is "focused on the unique and special issues facing the people who conduct the business of sport" (Crosset & Hums, 2012, p. 20). The idea to formally train the *people who conduct the business of sport* and develop a sport management academic curriculum is credited to James G. Mason and Walter O'Malley, who first discussed the idea in 1957 (Mason, Higgins, & Owen, 1981). It was their contention that while sport organizations and sport businesses had similarities to general business, the sport industry had peculiar idiosyncrasies and intricacies that deserved unique, devoted attention. Accepting this premise, and the belief that sport business, the purview of sport managers, whether applied or theoretical, requires a distinct sport management lens undergirds and directs this research. As Chalip (2006a) states, "we [sport management scholars] are about sport and management" (p. 2), meaning any empirical research, theoretical frameworks, or investigative lens that does not account for sport, management, and how the interplay between the two impacts both concepts and the object of study would be lacking from a sport management perspective.

While globalization studies, as a recognized academic discipline dedicated to the study and interpretation of globalization, did not fully emerge until the late 2000s (Steger, 2010; Middleton, 2011), the term and its theoretical underpinnings started to appear much earlier. It is near impossible, and overall not particularly useful, to pinpoint the very first

usage of “globalization”, but many scholars (e.g., Mandal, 2013; Calitoiu, 2011; Kaurinkoski, 2011; etc.) have accepted the *Oxford English Dictionary*’s claim that one of the earliest usages was employed in a 1930 publication, *Towards a New Education* (Boyd & MacKenzie, 1930), to denote a holistic view of the human experience in education. The *Merriam-Webster Dictionary* claims its first known use of globalization was in 1951. Still others look towards Theodore Levitt’s (1983) ‘The Globalization of Markets’ as contemporary globalization discourse’s starting point.

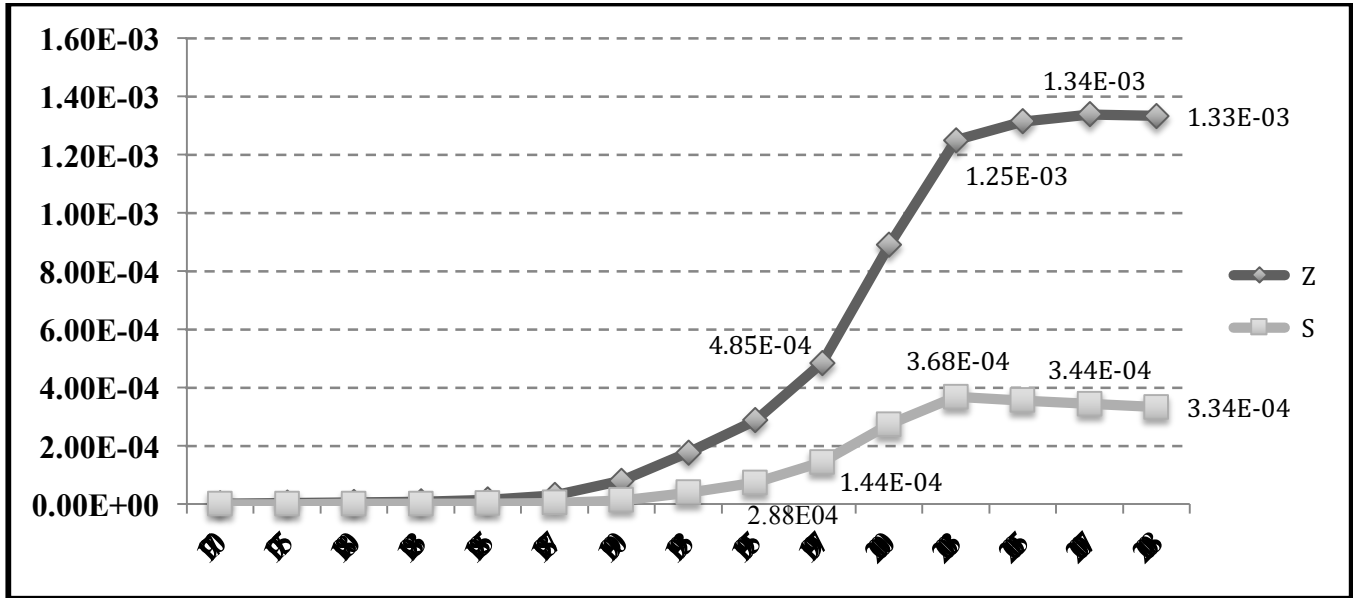
Regardless of the etymological confusion, globalization became a preeminent, almost celebrity-like, academic and mainstream concept during the latter part of the 20th Century (See Figure 1 and Figure 2). As the Google NGram, which charts the yearly usage of more than 500 billion words from 5.2 million books published between 1500 and 2008, indicates, globalization discourse—regardless of origin—did not flourish until the mid-1980s and beyond. In an effort to be inclusive, both the “standard” English (Crystal, 2009) and American versions—i.e., globalisation and globalization—are included in the study’s data collection and evaluation. Both Figure 1 and Figure 2 demonstrate that the American English version, shown as “Z” in the figures, is used more often in English language books, but the “standard” English version, shown as “S” in the figures, also gained widespread usage. The terms are viewed as interchangeable throughout this work, as many of the primary data sources were developed in “standard” English. The corresponding values for both globalization and globalisation during each year shown in Figures 1 and 2 are presented in Appendix A.

Figure 1: Globalization (Z) and Globalisation (S) NGram 1930 – 2008: Percent of Total



Source: Google NGram Viewer; Search Terms = “globalization” and “globalisation”

Figure 2: Globalization (Z) and Globalisation (S) NGram 1970 – 2008: Percent of Total



Source: Google NGram Viewer; Search Terms = “globalization” and “globalisation”

Perhaps Fiss and Hirsch (2005) inadvertently capture the etymological confusions associated with globalization's ascent when stating, "since the appearance of the term 'globalization' in the early 1970s, the scholarly and popular discourse of globalization has grown steadily in both amount and complexity" (p. 32). Despite this widespread literary attention, globalization remains a poorly defined and vehemently contested concept. It is plagued with ambiguous and uncertain forecasts, purview contestation, a plethora of competing, yet often contradictory theoretical frameworks, outright confusion regarding its scope, scale, and relevance, and a seemingly inherent academic tension between developing a grand globalization theory versus more idiosyncratic theories. The tension is between theories that address particular globalization-related aspects, topics, and eras/phases (e.g., economic globalization, cultural globalization, political globalization, ecological globalization, technological globalization, etc.) versus a single theoretical framework to explain it all. Steger (2009) sums this up well, stating: Steger (2009) sums this up well, stating:

Since its earliest appearance in the 1960s, the term 'globalization' has been used in both popular and academic literature to describe a process, a condition, a system, a force, and an age. Given that these competing labels have very different meanings, their indiscriminate usage is often obscure and invites confusion. (p. 8)

The uncertainties embedded within globalization debates not only impact conceptualizations of global economics, politics, international relations, and the natural environment, but also cultural productions such as sport, sporting events, and other relevant sport issues (e.g., sport labor migration, commodification, international sporting goods manufacturing, media conglomerates, global sport media, mega-events, sport's

environmental effects, etc.). However, the sport management and globalization literatures are lacking in their treatment of and attention to the intersections between the two disciplines. The lack of attention has predictably led to a dearth of research that examines the discursive history of the globalization of sport, the impact of the global sport media, and their implications for sport management practices. This work attempts to bridge these literature lacunae by demonstrating how a historical discursive investigation can inform contemporary and practical issues relevant to applied social sciences—here the discourse surrounding the globalization of sport is examined and interpreted from a sport management perspective.

Jarvie (2006) maintains that discussions of contemporary sport that incorporate relevant globalization processes tend “to take place at two levels, the extent to which the globalisation of sport itself has occurred and the extent to which sport makes a contribution to other globalisation processes” (p. 92). While arguably in the former taxonomy, this dissertation intends to go beyond outcome-based, “moment-in time” evaluations of “the extent to which the globalisation of sport itself has occurred.” To accomplish this goal, an evaluation of how the historical discourse via newspapers’ Olympic Games coverage regarding the globalization of sport helped shape and frame how the globalization of sport is considered, presented, understood, and related to the power structures within the sport industry is undertaken. Westerbeek and Smith (2004), attempting to increase “the range of organizations that have an involvement in producing, delivering and selling sport, and as such require (at least some form of) sport

management” (Westerbeek, 2010, p. 1295), defined the sport industry in the following terms:

The sport industry encompasses all upstream and downstream value adding activities emanating from the delivery of sport products and services. A sport product or service occurs when a human-controlled, goal-directed, competitive activity requiring physical prowess (irrespective of competency) is delivered or facilitated.

Upstream value adding activities include sectors or organizations which provide supplies, infrastructure or support products or services to allow or facilitate the delivery of a sport product or service. Downstream value adding activities include sectors or organizations which provide distribution, marketing or customer relationship (after sales) products or services to a sport product or service. (cited in Westerbeek, 2010, p. 1295)

Extending Westerbeek (2010), this author views the sport media and sport journalists as actors that play a direct and indirect role in both upstream and downstream value adding activities, and in turn, should be considered a key component of the sport industry. A mixed-method discourse analysis of nine newspapers’ Olympic Games coverage during three different games (i.e., 1984, 2000, and 2008) is used in this dissertation to analyze and interpret the globalization of sport discourse and its connections to the sports industry and sport management. It is expected that this study will contribute evidence-based considerations to globalization debates, help inform sport management scholars about the sporting press’ role in sport discourse creation, perpetuation, and utilization, provide insight into the power relations that undergird international and global sport organizations and their mega-events, and identify practical sport management implications. Foucault’s (1966/1970, 1969/1972, 1971/1971 1978, 1980, 1981, 1982) critical premises regarding truth, knowledge, and the role of experts in

discourse production, circulation, and legitimization and discourse's relationship to power—i.e., knowledge, the realm of experts, cannot be divorced from power—are heavily utilized throughout the following pages. As Foucault (1991) stated:

We live in a social universe in which the formation, circulation, and utilisation of knowledge present a fundamental question. If the accumulation of capital has been an essential feature of our society, the accumulation of knowledge has not been any less so. Now, the exercise, production and accumulation of this knowledge cannot be dissociated from the mechanisms of power; complex relations exist which must be analysed. (p. 165)

This work asserts that a relative absence of overt sport experts and sport's privileged social and cultural position greatly impacts sport discourses, including the globalization of sport discourse, and elevates sport journalists to unique power positions—ultimately making sport journalists *de facto* experts responsible for the “formation, circulation, and utilisation of [sport] knowledge” (Foucault, 1991). Sport journalists' positions and relationships intimately connect them to sport's power structures and, as a result, sport organization's agents (i.e., representatives) and propaganda mechanisms.

Sport journalists, through their coverage (or lack thereof), are critical actors in sport discourse production and in how sport is holistically considered. Moreover, given their seemingly unquestioned positions, it is worthwhile to examine how sport journalists' Olympic Games coverage contributes to the globalization of sport discourse, as well as subsequent theories and debates. In short, this dissertation endeavors to examine nine different newspapers' (from three different countries) Olympic Games coverage for two purposes: 1) to determine how their *coverages*, as well as their

evolution, reflected Steger's (2009) dimensions of globalization (economic, political, cultural, and ecological), and 2) examine how the globalization of sport discourse reflects the power mechanisms within sport.

Since no discourse occurs in isolation (i.e., operates in a vacuum), examining the globalization of sport discourse requires a consideration of other influential discourses and social phenomena. While it is beyond the scope of this study to present all the other influential discourses, three cannot be ignored: environmentalism, neoliberalism, and dynamic international relations. These are presented at the end of Chapter 2.

Divorcing globalization from these other discourses would be a disservice, as it would obstruct robust considerations of the globalization of sport, and render this study's conclusions, at best, inadequate and non-generalizable. Approaching the subject of sport globalization in this manner allows for the consideration of how meanings and outcomes are contested through a litany of discourses, how structural factors facilitate and limit the emergence and proliferation of such discourses (Weick, 1999; Fiss & Hirsch, 2005), and how power is ingrained within discourse (Foucault, 1966/1970, 1969/1972, 1971/1971, 1976/1978, 1978, 1980, 1981, 1982).

SPORT MANAGEMENT AND GLOBALIZATION STUDIES: YOUNG, HYBRID DISCIPLINES

Sport management and globalization studies are relatively young, hybrid academic disciplines that offer interested scholars numerous research opportunities. Chalip (2006a) maintains that sport management's academic youth allows sport management scholars the opportunity to "build the discipline's foundation and shape its

future” (p. 1). This characterization can be extended (albeit perhaps to a lesser extent) to globalization studies, as globalization scholars continue to dedicate significant work towards solidifying, legitimatizing, and framing their field as an academic discipline (Middelton, 2011). Globalization studies scholars’ work includes numerous theoretical contributions, but these contributions often fail to incorporate empirical data or consider sport as a global cultural, social, economic, and political phenomenon (Giulianotti & Robertson, 2007). It is hoped that this work will encourage globalization scholars to consider sport when developing their theories and conducting research as well as inspire sport management scholars to more rigorously account for globalization when developing theoretical constructs, advocating practical implications, and conducting historical investigations. Contemporary sport cannot be robustly considered if globalization is ignored, and comprehensive globalization theories are incomplete if they cannot be applied to sport and/or account for sport’s spheres of influence, realms of operation, public appeal, and power.

Mittelman (2002) stated that “globalization studies has emerged as a means to explain the intricacy and variability of the ways in which the world is restructuring and, by extension, to assess reflexively the categories used by social scientists to analyze these phenomena” (p. 11), but at that time Mittelman was only willing to describe globalization studies as a “proto-paradigm” (p. 12). Within a decade numerous scholars shed this hesitation (e.g., Sassen, 2007; O’Byrne & Hensby, 2011; Hopper, 2007; Friedman, 2009, etc.). In 2010, Steger declared globalization studies the new transdisciplinary field dedicated to the study of globalization that has emerged over the last 30 years. Middelton

(2011), following suit, put forth guidelines for a research agenda stating, “The [globalization studies] research agenda needs to account more fully for myriad forms of globalization, varied genres of inquiry in this domain of knowledge, and the implications for disciplinary and area studies” (p. 19). The globalization of sport (and its corresponding sport management implications) is a “form of globalization” and “domain of knowledge” requiring further attention and investigation.

While academic (i.e., disciplinary) youth allows scholars to avoid entrenched assumptions, group-thinking, and heuristic pitfalls, new disciplines often struggle to find relevance, legitimization, and acceptance. Further, young disciplines often suffer from a dearth of discipline-specific theory and empirical research, forcing scholars to justify their research through related theories, tangential literature, and conjecture/speculation. This practice, while necessary, can lead to “turf wars” regarding academic purview and appropriate research topics, which can hamper a new discipline’s maturation. While these growing pains are unavoidable, scholars of young disciplines need to be cognizant of these potential hazards, and move toward creating discipline-specific research and theory to help demonstrate the new discipline’s legitimacy, significance, and uniqueness. Steger (2009) captures globalization studies and its challenges well in stating:

The study of globalization extends beyond particular academic disciplines. Yet, the lack of a firm disciplinary home also contains great opportunities. Global Studies has been slowly emerging as a new field that cuts across traditional disciplinary boundaries in the social sciences and humanities. This strong emphasis on transdisciplinarity requires students of Global Studies to familiarize themselves with vast literatures on related subjects that are usually studied in isolation from each other. The greatest challenge facing Global Studies lies, therefore, in connecting and synthesizing the various strands of knowledge in a way that does justice to

the increasingly fluid and interdependent nature of our fast-changing, postmodern world. In short, Global Studies requires an approach broad enough to behold the ‘big picture’. Such a transdisciplinary enterprise may well lead to the rehabilitation of the academic generalist whose prestige, for too long, has been overshadowed by the specialist. (p. x-xi)

In addition to youth, sport management and globalization studies also share the distinction of being hybrid disciplines. As Chalip (2006a) states, sport management is both about sport and management while Jones (2006), when commenting upon globalization studies’ evolution, maintains, “globalization has emerged over the last two decades from a number of distinct intellectual traditions and academic disciplines” (p. 4). Giulianotti and Robertson (2007) agree claiming that “global studies has mushroomed enormously since the mid-1980s, engendering diverse transdisciplinary and transnational networks of scholars” (p. 1). Jameson (1998) also agreed stating, “for it turns out that the intellectual space of ‘globalization’ involves the intersection of a number of different conceptual axes” (p. xii).

Sport management’s and globalization studies’s hybrid foundations allow scholars to borrow from shared as well as distinct parent-disciplines in attempts to eventually emerge as distinct, stand-alone paradigm. However, using previous scholarship to justify paradigmatic revolution (Kuhn, 1962) or discipline emergence is fraught with conflict as parent discipline proponents warn of repetition, limited scope, ambiguous problem orientation, and unproductive academic specialization. It is hybrid-discipline-scholars’ responsibility to reinforce the new field’s uniqueness, why it requires specific consideration, and how other academic work, while related, does not fully account for the areas and phenomena under examination—this onus is further strengthened when

utilizing two hybrid disciplines. Therefore, when utilizing two hybrid disciplines, as is done here, theoretical and empirical linkages and divergences require special considerations and explicit investigation.

Hybridity, similar to youth, can potentially create numerous issues for academic disciplines. Like young disciplines, hybrid disciplines often struggle to find supportive homes and are criticized for not distinguishing themselves. For example, since globalization has been examined and scrutinized through numerous academic perspectives (e.g., economic, anthropological, sociological, geographical, etc.), globalization studies can partially attribute its growth to several disciplines but it does not naturally fit within any particular one.

Consequently approaching globalization studies from a singular, previously developed disciplinary perspective can produce unbalanced and limited conceptualizations that do not account for or appropriately weigh factors beyond their disciplinary scope—for instance, economists do not always account for politics and political scientists do not always account for economics. Approaching globalization from a singular perspective tends to over emphasize parent disciplines' areas of expertise, permit each discipline to present globalization as a sub-phenomenon, and hamper approaching globalization as multidimensional phenomenon consisting of economic, cultural, social, political, environmental, and historical elements. In an attempt to prevent these hazards, this research approaches globalization as a multidimensional phenomenon (Steger, 2009), and like sport management's components of sport and management, each dimension requires specific consideration under an encompassing and inclusionary

disciplinary paradigm. Globalization is not solely an economic, anthropological, sociological, philosophical, or any other kind of social concept, but is rather a set of multidimensional social processes representing increased social and cultural integration that resist being confined to any single thematic framework (Steger, 2009) (a more detailed discussion of this work's conceptualization and approach to globalization is presented in Chapter 2).

Scholars of hybrid disciplines have the responsibility to judiciously use their parent disciplines, illustrate the new discipline's idiosyncratic characteristics, and blunt other disciplines' usurping attempts, while simultaneously drawing from applicable scholarship relevant to their research interests. Recognizing youth and hybridity's advantages and disadvantages, this research intends to help reinforce sport management and globalization studies as stand-alone paradigms and to demonstrate the fruitful potential of their coinciding and overlapping research areas—the sport management-globalization nexus.

Sport Management-Globalization Studies Nexus

The sport management-globalization studies nexus is the congruent and complementary issues, contemporary and historical, relevant to both sport management and globalization studies. The sport management-globalization nexus is intended to incorporate sport management's and globalization studies's shared parent disciplines, while recognizing their distinct evolution and contributions. This is a two-way, reflective relationship, i.e., the sport management-globalization studies nexus encompasses globalization characteristics and dimensions influencing sport management theory and

practice development and vice versa. This relationship is not stagnant as both sport management and globalization studies are dynamic disciplines with established, yet still evolving theoretical foundations whose connections are ambiguous and subject to academic research's expected ebbs and flows. The nexus includes numerous topics and calls for a transdisciplinary approach that intertwines sport management- and globalization studies-specific considerations.

Sport management scholars have produced many informative works regarding the sport management-globalization studies nexus (e.g., Thibault, 2009; Houlihan, 2007; Taylor, 2006; Maguire, 1999, 2011a, 2011b; etc.). However, considerably more attention deconstructing the sport management-globalization nexus's complexity is necessary, especially regarding sport journalists' (as default sport experts) role in creating and advancing sport discourses—in this instance the globalization of sport discourse.

SPORT MANAGEMENT AND GLOBALIZATION STUDIES: BRIEF OVERVIEW

Overlapping Research Areas

There are numerous research areas and topics related to the sport management-globalization studies nexus. Some of these topics have been explicitly pointed out and investigated while others remain unexplored. Thibault (2009), in the North American Society of Sport Management's 2008 Earle F. Zeigler Lecture, highlighted four significant issues in the sport management-globalization studies nexus: 1) transnational corporations exploiting developing countries work forces to manufacture sporting goods (e.g., sportswear and sport equipment); 2) sport labor migration (i.e., where birth country

and origin do not limit where an athlete plays and competes); 3) sport's environmental impact; and 4) global media conglomerates increased involvement in sport. This dissertation is primarily concerned with issues related to Thibault's last identified area and extends the issue to include the global media's role in discourse creation and perpetuation. While Thibault identifies four worthwhile areas, numerous other important research subjects exist. Table 1 identifies a number of these sport management-globalization studies research areas. Several of the topics listed in Table 1 have received limited attention, but more is required; moreover, the list is far from exhaustive.

Table 1: Sport Management-Globalization Studies Research Topics

Sport Management-Globalization Potential Research Topics	
• Global/Local Sport Consumption Habits	• Minorities and Women in Sport
• Globalization's Impacts on Traditional Sport Forms	• Doping and Performance Enhancing Drugs
• Globalization Resistance/Facilitation Through Sport	• Sports' Feasibility as an Economic Building Tool
• Diaspora Sport Communities	• Global Scale Sport Diffusion Methods
• Transnational Non-Governmental Sports Organizations (e.g., WADA, IOC, CAS, etc.)	• Globalization's Impacts on Sport Popular Culture and Subcultures (e.g., Create, Facilitate, Undermine, etc.)
• Acculturation and Resistance	• Global/Local Sport Fanship
• Commercialization of Sport	• Sport for Development
• Technology and Gambling	• International Sport Governance/Policy
• The Nation-State's Role Regarding Sport Management Practices	• How to Effectively Use Sport as a Global and Local Marketing Device

While the topics presented above are far from comprehensive, they illustrate the disciplines' significant overlap, rich potential of intertwined-scholarship, and need for a more nuanced understanding of the sport management-globalization studies nexus and its complexities. Sport management phenomenon require scrutiny beyond that applied to traditional global goods and services, because the sport industry is unlike other industries, has unique characteristics, and requires specific consideration (Smith & Stewart, 2010). Exploring the sport management-globalization studies nexus can provide insights into different globalization processes, and improve each discipline's scholarship.

Current Sport Management and Globalization Studies Research

While globalization is a widely used academic term, no agreed upon definition or conceptualization exists. Some scholars argue that globalization is multifaceted and composed of multiple economic, social, cultural, technological, and political processes, while others maintain that globalization is an individual, distinguishable phenomenon. Academics have argued that globalization is both an historical (Robertson, 1992) and a contemporary phenomenon (Friedman, 2002), but that an unprecedented speed, scale, and volume characterize the current age (Appadurai, 1990a). Others point out that globalization is highly contested (Kellner, 2002; Kellner & Kahn, 2007), experienced unequally (Eitzen, 2012), related to cultural imperialism (Tomlinson, 1991; Guttmann, 1994), and consisting of mostly unknown outcomes (Miller, Lawrence, McKay, & Rowe, 2001). However scholars speculate that the outcomes of globalization will be thought of

as both positive and negative depending on organizations', nation-states', and individuals' perspectives, standing, and status (Milanovic, 2003).

The above debates are central to globalization studies, and they are ones that sport management and sport history scholars are well positioned to contribute to, as numerous characteristics of sport (e.g., global appeal, financial power, persistent media attention, media consolidation, global organizational structures, etc.) are primed to be viewed from globalization studies perspectives. However, the sport management-globalization studies nexus remains woefully under-researched and, as a result, the globalization of sport and all its related topics are under theorized and shrouded in uncertainty.

Giulianotti and Robertson (2007) state that mainstream social scientists and globalization studies scholars have neglected sport as a field of enquiry: "sport figures occasionally rather than consistently in mainstream social scientific journals and, far less frequently, in the work of leading international scholars" (p. 1). Unfortunately, not a great deal has changed since Giulianotti and Robertson's statement, and the dearth of attention that globalization dimensions have received in sport management journals is troubling. The lack of attention is concerning given that sport has been characterized as a highly profitable, largely popular, and globally networked cultural form (Smart, 2007) that serves both as a source and a product of globalization (Eitzen, 2012) and, on a more practical level, as a global product and service (Ratten & Ratten, 2011). Houlihan (2007) reiterates the importance of globalization, stating that it has become one of the most prominent research concepts in the social sciences, including sport studies. Giulianotti and Robertson (2007) go further in claiming that globalization is the axial theme of

contemporary times. Although scholars continue to disagree about globalization's particulars, most tend to reject globalization skeptics and accept that globalization is happening (in one version or another) and view further theoretical development and empirical research as a necessary endeavor.

While more work needs to be done (as is articulated above), it would be misleading to state that the sport management literature has been completely absent in the globalization literature, as several conceptual, theoretical, and empirical studies have been produced. For example, conceptual and theoretical pieces have: 1) questioned how international and domestic sport is being used to further nationalistic, capitalistic, and democratic agendas (Zeigler, 2011); 2) contended that globalization is not experienced the same by all, especially in what has become known as the “Global South” (Eitzen, 2012); 3) proposed alternatives to the local-global continuum (Andrews & Ritzer, 2007); 4) commented upon global sport governance (Forster, 2006); 5) claimed that sports (e.g., baseball) are constructing and expanding world-wide business networks (Klien, 2006); and 6) demonstrated some of the perils of the globalization of sport (Thibault, 2009).

Empirical studies have focused on numerous issues including sport labor migration (Maguire, 1996; Stead & Maguire, 2000; Agergaard, 2008), the effects of commodification (Rasul & Proffitt, 2011), the outcomes of mega-events (Lin, Lee, & Cheng, 2010; Gratton, Shibli, & Coleman, 2006), and the impacts of global media attention and mediated images (Maguire, 2011a). These few examples illustrate that sport management scholars have contributed to the globalization studies literature; much more can—and should—be done, however. It is telling, though, that many of the

aforementioned works explicitly call for more research exploring the connections between sport management and globalization studies. Of particular note, no existing research investigates the ways in which various countries' newspaper coverage examines, describes, and/or presents globalization during the Olympic Games (arguably the most significant and visible international sporting mega-event) in terms of whether the discourse has changed over time, and/or whether it varies by country. This dissertation attempts to address these literature gaps. However, given globalization's relative complexity and the study's methodological approach, it is deemed appropriate and beneficial to divulge and describe the assumptions undergirding this dissertation.

UNDERLYING ASSUMPTIONS

The identification of underlying assumptions and biases is an important step in any discourse analysis as several scholars (Jacobs, 1999; Schegloff, 1997; Stubbs, 1999) have criticized the method for being subjective in terms of allowing researchers "to read what they want from text" (Edwards & Skinner, 2009, p. 248). Discourse analysts do not shy from this, as "discourse analysis theory openly acknowledges the inevitability of a theoretical position being context and observer specific. Indeed, the role of discourse analysis as a critical tool requires that the researchers' particular perspectives be made explicit" (Edwards & Skinner, 2009, p. 240). In other words, discourse analysis almost demands that an author's biases be disclosed as these biases, including disciplinary bias, can potentially exert strong influence over their interpretations and evaluations. As Atkins and Lasswell (1924) state, "we must, as part of our study, expose ourselves to

ourselves” (p. 7). Clarifying these words nearly 50 years later, Lasswell (1971) states, it is “impossible for anyone to escape an implicit map of the self-in-context” (p. 155). Palumbo (1987) sums up this position stating, “value neutral research is not possible nor desirable” (p. 32).

There are four specific assumptions maintained throughout this research. **First, the lack of overt sport experts combined with the proliferation of accessible sport journalism/sport media outlets have elevated sport journalists to unique positions of power—ones which are inescapably plagued by inherent conflict of interests.** These positions allow sport journalists via sport media outlets to produce, control, circulate, and utilize sport discourses that can lead to the propagation of myths, misinformation, misguided ideas, harmful social norms, and social group exclusion. Sport journalists have been accused of promotional rather than objective journalism, shown to exclude women’s sport (Claringbould, Knoppes, & Elling, 2004; Knoppers & Elling, 2004), and regarded as operating in a “collusive dynamic” with sport organizations and athletes partly due to access restrictions (or the threat thereof) (Sugden & Tomlinson, 2007). Sugden and Tomlinson (2007) state, “denied such access, the journalist becomes increasingly dependent upon fragments of controlled, and often trivial, information; and this intensifies the collusive dynamic” (p. 52). Andrews (2014) ignoring the press’s creed of objectivity and traditional watchdog functions alarmingly goes further in stating:

Sport journalism is a two-way process. The media clearly need information to fill their pages and bulletins, but sporting organisations also need publicity to attract crowds to their events and to buy merchandise. The best sort of publicity is free and the media have a vested interest in providing it for them. (p. 34)

This position is of great concern, as it instructs sport journalist to become organizational agents more worried about sport organizations' bottom lines than performing traditional journalistic functions. Other research (Goldberg, 1998; Raney & Bryant, 2006) indicates that sport journalism reinforces dominant, often pernicious, social discourses regarding race, gender, and sexuality, but these pieces are often depoliticized and trivialized (Rowe, 2007). As Rowe (2007) states, sport journalism is often popularly regarded as "the toy department of the news media" (p. 385). The advent and success of the Internet and new media has forced news outlets—in the face of increased competition—to make concessions they traditionally would not have made. As a result of there being a dramatic increase in journalists competing for information, they have had to develop relationships and heavily rely on sport organizations to provide unique, newsworthy information. This is a distinction that sport organizations and not journalists are increasingly making. This shift in the media outlets' information supply and demand curve gives additional power to news generators (i.e., sport organizations) and can potentially coerce media outlets to loosen or outright forgo their journalism principles and ethics.

In short, sport journalists have become default sport experts forced to navigate numerous inherent conflict of interests created from access restrictions, the popularity of sport, and increased number of sport media outlets. These conflicts can discourage journalists' traditional "watchdog" functions, investigative journalism, and advance, regardless of intent, sport organizations' agendas, social image, and public relations. Beyond the games themselves, sport journalists (and their respective outlets) determine

what is and what is not newsworthy within sport and the sport industry, and this is concerning given sport journalists' reliance on the organizations that are the subjects of their news as well as on the more general social, political, and economic power of sport. This becomes more concerning still when they are covering complex issues, such as the globalization of sport, that have the potential to affect billions of people and trillions of dollars.

The second assumption undergirding this research is that discourse is a form of power, and the people who control discourse wield a form of power that can enable “truth” to be constructed outside the boundaries of fact, evidence, and/or scrutiny (Foucault, 1971/1971, 1971/1972). Whether considering Kierkegaard's (1846/2009) “subjectivity is truth” and “truth is subjectivity” or Nietzsche's (1883-88/1968) “there are no facts, only interpretations” or Foucault's (1971/1971, 1969/1972) “discourse is power”, it becomes philosophically evident that truths (big or little “T”), entire discourses, and “sciences” can be based on conjecture, “common-sense” (Gramsci, 1971, 2000), and/or fact manipulation/misinterpretation (e.g., phrenology). For Gramsci (1971, 2000) “common-sense” meanings are ever-evolving, multiple, fragmented among strata, and rooted in historical processes—put differently, “common-sense” like “truth” is not universal. Barthes's (1957/2012, 1967/1983) semiotic work regarding myths, signs, language, and linguistic categories, Baudrillard's (1981/1984) work regarding signs in everyday life and the production of meaning, and Deleuze's (1968/1994) and Deleuze's and Guattari's (1972/1977) ideas regarding the production and circulation of concepts have all been helpful in conceptualizing the relationships among language, meanings, and

concepts as they relate to discourse-power dynamics. In a gross oversimplification of these influential thinkers' ideas—truth can be a constructed, social-engineered, and easily manipulated idea that can create power, circumvent threats, control alternatives, and exclude alternative thought. From this theoretical standpoint it is possible to posit that the power of discourse is linked to who is talking, what they are talking about, how they are talking about a given phenomenon, and why they are doing so. Therefore the real power resides in those who control the information—in sports, the sporting media via sport organizations often occupy these roles.

This assumption is essential to this study, as discourse can indicate how ideas and ideologies are spread and who is spreading them. People and organizations that control the discourse (i.e., power brokers) often have a vested interest in maintaining the status quo and blunting criticism and attempts aimed at altering current realities and social norms. Further, because sport journalists are both knowledge creators and knowledge evaluators (i.e., determiners of newsworthiness), the opportunity for non-truths and corruption is enormous. Non-truths have a way of trickling into the mainstream, being accepted as fact, and obfuscating important issues.

While most sport journalists do not, of course, purposefully engage in misinformation campaigns or the promotion of agitprop, their intertwined and dependent relationships with the sport organizations that they cover can lead to the proliferation of organization-approved messages as news (i.e., fact) and a reticence to investigate controversial issues or present critical reporting. When this occurs, the “truth” becomes negotiated and the objectiveness of the news can be questioned. To put it differently, if a

baseball journalist (who wants to remain a baseball journalist) uncovers potential improprieties regarding the organization that he or she covers, three potential actions are available: 1) pursue the lead at the risk of losing access; 2) ask the organization's representatives and report whatever crafted, controlled response they provide as 'news' (i.e., act as an organizational agent); or 3) ignore it (i.e., maintain the status quo). This is an almost impossible ethical and professional situation for some journalists—and one that is expected to increase as competition within the sport journalism field increases—and has the potential to be a major deterrent to objective, investigatory sport journalism. Even when scandals and improprieties are reported (and to be fair some scandals are heavily reported), it can be to the reporter's detriment and seem to have little to no impact on global sport organizations' culture and *modus operandi*—as has been evident in the seemingly endless scandals concerning both the Fédération Internationale de Football Association (FIFA) (Pielke, 2013; Jennings, 2006) and the International Olympic Committee (IOC) (Hunt, 2011; MacAloon, 2011; Miller, 2012).

The third assumption is that sport maintains a unique societal and cultural position in society and that its “innocuous character” (Hoberman, 1977, p. 80) is often used to mask or pursue non-sport related goals (e.g., healthy workforce, training soldiers, economic benefit, improved international relations, power, etc.). Sport, or the coverage of sport, has been able to achieve goals where diplomatic and other nation building and social efforts have failed. The notion that sport, especially international sport, is apolitical is wrongheaded and history is filled with prominent instances demonstrating the contrary. Notable examples include the presence of African-

Americans, and their subsequent success, during the 1936 Berlin Olympics (Miller, 1996), the ‘Ping-Pong Diplomacy’ between the United States and China during the 1970s (Hong & Sun, 2000), and China’s purported environmental (Loh, 2008) and humanitarian efforts (Pound, 2008) during the run-up to the 2008 Beijing Olympics.

Other scholars (e.g., Zeigler, 2011) have pointed out that other social forces, namely nationalism, capitalism, and democracy, have co-opted sport and are now so intricately intermingled that it is difficult to conceptualize sport without them or ignore their impacts. These are examples of sport’s “other” functions. Once societal and economic power brokers realized sports’ capacity to overcome societal and cultural boundaries and its utility towards other goals, they made it their business to infuse sport’s “other” functions into mainstream sport. This assumption attempts to recognize how sport has been used to serve political, ideological, and economic masters, and “sport for sport sake” has become so diminished that spectatorship, which leaves people the most susceptible to media impressions, has become the dominant form of United States’s sport participation. As a result scholars must look beyond the physical activities of sport and view, interpret, and evaluate sport and sport organizations through a bevy of theoretical and academic lens (e.g., political, economic, sociological, historical, philosophical, etc.) to determine their roles and powers. Sport demands a critical approach. However, sport is often overlooked or evaluated at a superficial level, and sport’s global appeal, political influence, and overall power is too often absent in journalists’ accounts.

The author's fourth assumption declares that an ideational perspective towards globalization is critical to understanding globalization's rise, popularity, and polarizing effects. When describing this perspective, Martell (2010) states, "what we think about globalization is more important than globalization itself" (p. 36). This does not go against Steger's (2009) description of globalization as a multidimensional concept and is in accordance with Foucault's thoughts regarding truth, knowledge and power, as it recognizes the enormous power of ideas regardless of fact and evidence as well as how those ideas can change in the face of globalization. As Steger (2009) asserts:

Globalization processes do not occur merely on an objective, material level but also involve the subjective plane of human consciousness. The compression of the world into a single place increasingly makes global the frame of reference for human thought and interaction. Hence globalization involves both the macro-structures of community and the micro-structures of personhood. It extends deep into the core of the self and its dispositions, facilitating the creation of new individual and collective identities nurtured by the intensifying relations the individual and the globe. (p. 15)

Conceptualizing globalization in this way circumvents the consistent debates regarding what social processes are at the heart (or not at the heart) of globalization because nearly all social processes are now global (to some extent) or at the very least can, and potentially should, be considered from globalization perspectives. Therefore, the actual artifacts of globalization are, in essence, less consequential. It is how globalization is discussed and who is controlling these discussions that is of greater concern, because while artifacts and actions may have come first, it is the reactions, including resistance, and discussions that have the greatest power and characterize the contemporary global age—an age in which the media is playing a central role.

STATEMENT OF PURPOSE AND SIGNIFICANCE OF STUDY

This study has five main purposes. First, the study endeavors to demonstrate the rich research opportunities and linkages between sport management and globalization studies. By doing so, it hopes to inspire future scholars to pursue these fruitful, yet relatively underexplored connections—ones that are poised to intensify. Globalization processes and their yet unknown outcomes have the potential to impact sport management practices at both domestic and international levels, and not taking a proactive approach to understanding their impacts could prove costly—both academically and economically. Finally, it is unlikely that globalization studies scholars, given the other disciplines’ approach to and consideration of sport, will discriminately investigate the dimensions of the globalization of sport and give “sufficient focus” to sport’s special features and nuances (Edwards & Skinner, 2009, p. 12). Should this prediction come to fruition, the onus to accurately account for sport in the global age and the globalization of sport will shift to sport management and sport history scholars.

Second, this study attempts to address previous sport management scholars’ (Pitts, 2001; Frisby, 2005; Amis & Silk, 2005; Quatman, 2006) concerns and answer calls to increase the field’s diversity and investigatory range (Slack, 1998), move past traditional sport management theories and paradigms (Skinner & Edwards, 2005), expand sport management’s “constrained idea space” (Quatman, 2006, p. 2), and develop applicable “research so that it impacts, and is meaningful to, the various communities that sport management has the potential to touch” (Amis & Silk, 2005, p. 355). Approaching the globalization of sport through a mixed method discourse analysis requires the

incorporation of an array of interdisciplinary research, and meets the call for mixed method approaches and refined research designs (Edwards & Skinner, 2009). As Doherty (2012) states when writing about the need for interdisciplinary research in the field of sport management:

This alternative approach involves relating, integrating, and relocating disciplinary thinking to arrive at a mutually-determined research problem that represents new ways of conceptualizing phenomena. It enables moving away from the monodisciplinary research that characterizes much of our [sport management] field to examine phenomena from different angles, and perhaps more effectively close the research-practice gap with knowledge derived from multiple perspectives....it is time to engage in interdisciplinary research in sport management as no one discipline has all the answers; rather, "it takes a village" to solve the complex problems in our world. (p. 1)

Third, this study seeks to critically examine sport journalism, as the industry is often exempt from such examinations. Undertaking these efforts will provide insights regarding the relationships among journalism, sport management, globalization dimensions, sport organizations, and power. The media and media-based relationships are viewed as central components to sport management best practices, especially as it applies to sport governance, international sport organizations, public relations, promotions and sponsorships, organizational forecasting, strategic management, and sport policy. This approach encourages the development of sport management-based media strategies that go beyond calls to actively develop mutually beneficial relationships and view the media as an ally and not an adversary; the media is in fact both. The media scrutiny experienced throughout all levels of sport, as well as the media's power to influence discourse, cannot be underestimated. Understanding issues within sport journalism (e.g., checkbook

journalism, restricted access, falsification, etc.) (Schaper, 2003) and how the media helps shape a concept, such as globalization, provides organizations with information and can signify potentially unknown stakeholders, as well as external opportunities and threats. The media can play a significant role in determining sport management issues and best practices, and it is important to conduct research on how media and sport organizations are interacting with and producing “news”.

Fourth, this study strives to determine whether the globalization of sport discourse followed the same trajectory as the general globalization discourse in terms of number of articles, the use of the term globalization, and the sophistication of globalization conceptualization. This can provide historical insights into when sport journalists started to recognize and discuss sport’s global presence, their reactions and understandings, and whether the globalization of sport was robustly considered. Providing empirical evidence that the globalization of sport was increasingly discussed in mainstream media is worthy of academic attention, and the matter should be considered from various perspectives. Finally, it can provide researchers with a chronological starting point for future research regarding the globalization of sport.

The fifth and final objective of this study is to provide thematic evidence relevant to sport management and globalization studies theories and best practices. Such information will provide scholars with a starting point for future research. The dialectical tension between the scholarly globalization camps claiming heterogeneity over homogeneity, convergence over isolation, utopia over inequality, and vice versa is palpable and a major cause of confusion regarding what is and what is not considered a

dimension of globalization. This research attempts to help demonstrate whether national setting characterized the globalization of sport discourse and whether globalization was presented similarly. This should provide insight on whether disagreements regarding globalization developed overtime or existed from its inception.

In accordance with the final objective, thematic evidence will also help in the development of a more nuanced understanding of the power relations within and around international sport. It will help, for example, to clarify whether the media was used to promote values and ideas in accordance with international sport organizations. Providing evidence regarding the globalization of sport discourse can help clarify the field, demonstrate support for other more useful conceptualizations, outline research agendas, and advocate best practices. As the dimensions of globalization becomes more clear, the easier it will be to develop more effective sport management best practices, especially as they relate to strategic management, organizational forecasting, sport policy creation, international sport governance, branding, image management, sport development, sport for development, and sport marketing.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

With the interpretative lens and consideration of sport management and sport management-related phenomenon at the forefront, this study seeks to investigate the following research questions:

- R1. Has the trajectory of the globalization of sport discourse followed the same path as the general globalization discourse?
 - Has the frequency of articles specifically mentioning globalization/globalisation increased during each Olympiad?
- R2. How was the globalization of sport discourse portrayed in each newspaper's coverage?
 - How did the newspapers' coverage of the Olympic Games reflect the dimensions of globalization (e.g., economic, political, cultural, and ecological)?
- R3. How did the globalization of sport discourse within Olympic coverage reflect international/global sport power relations?
 - How did IOC and NOC officials discuss globalization?

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Recognizing Pitts's (2001) and Doherty's (2012) call for sport management scholars to take a multidisciplinary approach and Steger's (2009) declaration that studying globalization requires a broad enough approach to capture the 'big picture', this literature review endeavors to present an array of relevant sport management and globalization studies research and debates. This chapter is divided into three sections. The first section entitled "Globalization" starts with an illustration of the definitional disagreement surrounding globalization through a presentation of globalization definitions spanning more than two decades. Next, four dominant globalization perspectives and their positions are described. Then five key debates, flowing from the different definitions and regimes of thought, found within the social science-globalization studies literature are highlighted. Next, a synthesis designed to serve as a guide to how globalization is conceived and approached throughout this work is offered. Using the synthesis' various components as an outline, each component is explained and justified. Next a definition of globalization that builds upon the synthesis is proffered. The final subsection presents other paradigms within the globalization studies literature, and attempts to further demonstrate the confusion associated with globalization and its conceptualizations. The overt purpose of this section is to demonstrate that the discourse of globalization is far from static, and is destined to continue evolving.

The second section, "Sport Management", begins with a general discussion of sport in the global age and reinforces the academic and practical linkages among sport management and globalization studies. Some of the challenges associated with

conducting sport management research regarding globalization are then outlined. Next, a brief snapshot of sport management's (as an academic discipline) globalization activities are presented alongside their potential pitfalls. Then a brief discussion of the IOC and the Olympic Games in the context of globalization is presented. Following this the current state of sport management work addressing globalization topics related to the Olympic Games is evaluated. This section highlights the diverse and engaging work that characterizes the sport management literature addressing features of globalization, while encouraging additional work that cogitates different considerations under various globalization paradigms. The sport management section concludes with presentation of several potential perils resulting from globalization processes.

The third and final section, entitled "Discourse", explores the relationship of power to discourse with a focus on Foucault's conceptualizations of both. Here, the malleability of discourse, its coveted power, the need to critically monitor it, and its applications to sport management practices are discussed. The chapter is concluded with a brief presentation of other influential discourses, namely neoliberalism, environmentalism, and dynamic international relations. The global environment and environmental issues are often viewed as the quintessential globalization exemplars, as scholars point to these concerns (e.g., climate change, emission regulations, species extinction, environmental disasters, etc.) as being borderless, beyond the power of one nation-state or region, requiring cooperation among nation-states, and creating uneven impacts all across the globe. Often more restrictive nation-states absorb the collateral consequences of neighboring nation-states' lenient environmental policies without

receiving the benefit of being environmentally lax. If one looks at the environment, as a whole, as a common global resource and individual nation-states' slipshod environmental regulations as rational and in their self-interests, then, according to Hardin (1968), a "tragedy of the commons" is being perpetuated. The tragedy occurs when individuals exploit a common resource for individual gain while having no regard for others—approaching resources in this way will lead to their eventual depletion and/or demise. According to Hardin, once something is deemed an infinite or corruptible resource it requires management and regulation to eliminate free riders and ensure sustainability.

Environmental concerns and observations have launched a discourse of environmentalism (i.e., conservation, sustainability, and green technologies) into the minds and agendas of academics, corporations, governments, and the general public—similar to the way the globalization discourse was able to cross into these sectors and prompt action. The political environments during each Olympic Games are also important, as they had a direct influence on the manners in which individuals thought and talked about globalization. Other discourses are presented because no discourse operates independently and discourses can influence other discourses. Additional discourses could easily be considered, but they are beyond the scope of this Chapter, as these three, while important in their own rights, are used to exemplify the intertwined nature of simultaneously occurring discourses.

GLOBALIZATION

Globalization Definitions

While the scholars who study globalization do not agree on many things, they tend to all agree, if they believe globalization is really happening, that describing and conceptualizing globalization is riddled with obstacles and attempting to define the term itself is supreme among them (Hackman, 2005). As Hopper (2006) states, “Any study of globalization is immediately confronted with the considerable problem of the lack of agreement over what it *is*, with some commentators dismissing it all together” (p. 2) (emphasis in the original). Unfortunately, a great many share Hopper’s sentiment, and statements like this can be found at the beginning of nearly every text discussing globalization. So instead of immediately offering another, perhaps slightly altered, definition of globalization, the author considers it prudent to present, evaluate, and look for themes and similarities in the cornucopia of definitions offered throughout the literature. Table 2 presents, in chronological order, a large variety of globalization definitions. Table 2 is not exhaustive, as presenting every available definition is not only nearly impossible, it is not desirable. The point is not to be comprehensive, but to present various definitions from various disciplines and illustrate how this definitional disagreement is a critical hurdle in globalization studies and the discourse of globalization. Table 2 presents general globalization definitions and attempts to exclude definitions that focus on single dimensions, such as economic, political, ecological, and/or cultural globalization. Presenting the previous disclaimer further illustrates the difficulty in developing an encompassing, agreed upon definition of globalization.

Table 2: Globalization Definitions

Author(s) Year	Globalization Definitions
Giddens (1990)	“Globalization can thus be defined as the intensification of worldwide social relations which link distant localities in such a way that local happenings are shaped by events occurring many miles away and vice versa” (p. 64).
Albrow (1990)	“All those processes by which the peoples of the world are incorporated into a single society, global society” (p. 9).
Appadurai (1990a)	“The critical point is that both sides of the coin of global cultural process today are products of the infinitely varied mutual contest of sameness and difference on a stage characterized by radical disjunctures between different sorts of global flows and the uncertain landscapes created in and through these disjunctures” (p. 308).
Robertson (1992)	“Globalization as a concept refers to both to the compression of the world and intensification of consciousness of the world as a whole” (p. 8).
Dicken (1992)	“...globalization is ‘qualitatively different’ from internationalization”...represents “a more advanced and complex form of internationalization which implies a degree of functional integration between internationally dispersed economic activities” (p. 1).
Walck & Bilimoria (1995)	“...globalization is not an output of the ‘real’ forces of markets and technologies, but is rather an input in the form of rhetorical and discursive constructs, practices and ideologies which some groups are imposing on others for political and economic gain” (p. 3).
Albrow (1996)	The historical transformation constituted by the sum of particular forms and instances of...[m]aking or being made global (i) “by the active dissemination of practices, values, technology and other human products throughout the globe (ii) when global practices and so on exercise an increasing influence over people’s lives (iii) when the globe serves as a focus for, or a premise in shaping, human activities...” (p. 88).
Appadurai (1996)	“...globalization is a ‘world of things’ that have ‘different speeds, axes, points of origin and termination, and varied relationships to institutional structures in different regions, nations, or societies’” (p. 3).
Mittelman (1996)	“A worldwide phenomenon, globalization is a coalescence of varied transnational processes and domestic structures, allowing the economy, politics, culture, and ideology of one country to penetrate another...driven by changing modes of production globalization compresses the time and space aspects of social relations” (p. 3).
Poppi (1997)	“...must be understood as the condition whereby localizing strategies become systematically connected to global concerns...Thus, globalization appears as a dialectical (and therefore contradictory) process: what is being globalized is the tendency to stress ‘locality’ and ‘difference’, yet ‘locality’ and ‘difference’ presuppose the very development of worldwide dynamics of institutional communication and legitimation” (p. 285).

Table 2: Globalization Definitions (Continued)

McGrew (1998)	“[G]lobalization [is] a process which generates flows and connections, not simply across nation-states and national territorial boundaries, but between global regions, continents and civilizations. This invites a definition of globalization as: ‘an historical process which engenders a significant shift in the spatial reach of networks and systems of social relations to transcontinental or interregional patterns of human organization, activity and the exercise of power’” (p. 327).
Giddens (1998)	“Globalization...is not only, or even primarily, about economic interdependence, but about the transformation of time and space in our lives” (p. 30-31).
Held, McGrew, Goldblatt, & Perraton (1999)	“...a process (or set of processes) which embodies a transformation in the spatial organization of social relations and transactions – assessed in terms of their extensity, intensity, velocity and impact – generating transcontinental or interregional flows and networks of activity, interaction, and the exercise of power” (p. 16).
Scholte (2001)	“...globalization refers to processes whereby many social relations become relatively delinked from territorial geography, so that human lives are increasingly played out in the world as a single place” (p. 14-15).
Waters (2001)	“Globalization is a social process in which the constraints of geography on economic, political, social and cultural arrangements recede, in which people become increasingly aware that they are receding and in which people act accordingly” (p. 5)
Langhorne (2001)	“Globalization is the latest stage in a long accumulation of technological advance which has given human beings the ability to conduct their affairs across the world without reference to nationality, government authority, time of day or physical environment” (p. 2).
Keohane (2002)	“...globalization describes a <i>trend</i> of increasing transnational flows and increasingly thick networks of interdependence” (italics in original) (p. 15).
Laïdi & Costopoulos (2002)	“...a process of intensifying social relations on a worldwide scale that results in an increasing disjunction between space and time” (p. 69).
Szeman (2003)	“Globalization is the moment of mass migration, multiculturalism, and cosmopolitanism” (p. 94).
Al-Rodhan & Stoudmann (2006)	“Globalization is a process that encompasses the causes, course, and consequences of transnational and transcultural integration of human and non-human activities” (p. 20).
Steger (2009)	“Globalization refers to the expansion and intensification of social relations and consciousness across world-time and world-space” (p. 15).
Ritzer (2010)	“Globalization is a transplanetary process or set of processes involving increasing <i>liquidity</i> and growing multi-directional and the growing multi-directional <i>flows</i> of people, objects, places and information as well as the <i>structures</i> they encounter and create that are <i>barriers</i> to, or <i>expedite</i> , those flows” (emphasis in original) (p. 2).

Globalization Perspectives

The globalization literature can be divided into four distinctive perspectives (sometimes identified as waves): globalist (a.k.a. hyperglobalists) (e.g., Ōhmae, 1990, 1995; Reich, 1992; Albrow, 1996), skeptical (e.g., Hirst & Thompson, 1996; Krugman, 1996), transformationalist (a.k.a. post-skeptic) (e.g., Held et. al, 1999; Held & McGrew, 2003), and ideationalist (e.g., Cameron & Palan, 2004; Bruff, 2005; Scholte, 2005). The first three perspectives are firmly rooted in the globalization literature and have clearly stated positions on numerous globalization debates (See Table 3 and Table 4). Ideationalism has emerged more recently and approaches globalization from a blend of post-structuralist, postmodernist, and social constructionists perspectives (Martell, 2010).

The wave analogy characterizing these regimes of thought may be somewhat askew as there are still proponents and opponents for each perspective. One perspective did not cease to exist when a new “wave” emerged; in fact, all four perspectives are still very active. However, as new waves crash towards a beach they are not devoid of the remnants of previous waves—they are, in fact, related—and at the mercy of external, everyday forces (e.g., wind, temperature, etc.) and extreme one-time outliers (e.g., earthquakes). For our purposes, external, everyday forces can include daily stock trading, development of non-state based networks, international relations, continued technological advancement, calls for increased nationalism, and so on—they are normal, albeit dynamic characteristics of business, government, culture, and everyday life in the global age. One-time outliers can trigger huge reactions both in the academic literature and real world events. Among the most prominent recent examples are the end of the Cold War, attacks

of September 11th, and the United States' subsequent global "war on terror." No two single events have had more impact on globalization studies and globalization ideologies than the end of the Cold War and September 11th, yet the cumulative effects of everyday activities in the global age should not be underestimated or ignored. Punctuated events and the slow erosion and development of norms are both essential components to an encompassing conceptualization of globalization and the world's future—they both shape the globalization discourse. It would be a mistake to consider these perspectives obsolete. New and seasoned scholars, alike, continue to look to these varied perspectives as the foundations, or at least starting points, for their understandings of globalization.

The skeptical perspective appeared as a reaction to the globalists' claims, while transformationalist viewpoints developed in response to the both the globalists and skeptics. Following suit, the ideationalist perspective manifested as a reaction to the three previous waves; it views globalization as idealistic rather than materialistic (Martell, 2010). For ideationalists, ideas have their own autonomy and power—to them globalization is a discourse, making the artifacts of globalization less important than the ideas of globalization (Martell, 2010). Proponents and opponents of each of these perspectives can easily be found throughout the globalization studies literature, and these paradigms are expected to remain as globalization studies and the globalization discourse continues to develop and evolve. Finally, it should be noted that additional perspectives (i.e., waves) could arise and that not all scholars completely fall within one category if analysis. For example, ideationalist scholars regularly borrow from previous waves when addressing globalization debates beyond the purview of ideationalism.

Table 3: Three Perspectives of Globalization

	Globalists	Skeptics	Transformationalists
Globalization	Globalization; globalization as causal.	Globalization is a discourse; internationalization as effect of other causes.	Global transformations, but differentiations and embeddedness.
Method	Abstract, general approach.	Empirical approach.	Qualitative rather than quantitative approach.
Economy	Global economy; integration, open; free trade.	International economy; triadic, regional, unequal; state invention and protectionism.	Globally transformed; new stratification; globalized but differentiated.
Politics	Global governance or neoliberalism; decline of the nation-state; loss of national sovereignty.	Nation-states, regional blocs, international; power and inequality; political agency possible.	Politics globally transformed; nation-states important but reconstructed; sovereignty shred.
Culture	Homogenization.	Clashes of culture; nationalism; Americanization; globalization differentiated.	Globally transformed; hybridization; complex, differentiated globalization.
History	Globalization is new.	Internationalization is old.	Globalization is old but present forms unprecedented.
Normative Politics	Global governance or neoliberalism; end of social democratic welfare state.	Reformist social democracy and international regulation possible.	Cosmopolitan democracy.
Future	Globalization.	Nation-state, triad, conflicts, inequality.	Uncertain, agency; left or right; continued, stalled or reversed.

Note: Reprinted from *The Sociology of Globalization* (p. 24) by L. Martell (2010), Cambridge, UK: Polity Press.

The Globalist Perspective

The globalists (a.k.a. hyperglobalist) perspective was the first “wave” of globalization studies literature to emerge. Bold claims characterize this analytical tradition, with some of its authors claiming that the current age is “the end of history” (Fukuyama, 1992) where the “world is flat” (Friedman, 2005) and the “end of the nation-state” (Ōhmae, 1995) is imminent. To globalists, globalization is a new phenomenon. To support their positions, globalists point to the free movement of capital, the growing number and increased power of multinational corporations and organizations, entangled forms of international politics above the nation-state, amplified economic interdependency, and advancement of communication and electronic technologies. This perspective is sometimes seen—and criticized—as economistic (Held et al., 1999), with authors taking an economic deterministic view and claiming that political and cultural changes are a byproduct of economic change. To globalists the economy will become global and open to all parts of the world so that an integrated global economy will emerge—and emerge to everyone’s benefit. Neoliberal economic policies, they argue, will help drive this integration.

Another tenant of the globalist perspective is the decline of the nation-state’s power, sovereignty, and identity. Citing pro-business, national policies designed to facilitate international trade and the flow of capital, the rise of international financial and political organizations (e.g., International Monetary Fund, United Nations, European Union, etc.), and global social movements (Gill, 2000; Keane, 2003), globalists claim that the world is shrinking to the nation-state’s chagrin and eventual demise. For them

technological advancement is a key component to this shrinking—something nation-states are struggling, at least initially, to understand and control. In the end, globalists believe that globalization processes will produce more homogenized or hybridized cultures and that national differences and identities will wane as individuals consume and identify with foreign cultures and artifacts (Tomlinson, 1999). Some scholars, as a result, are calling for a move away from traditional ideas of society rooted in the nation-state to more cosmopolitan perspectives (e.g., Urry, 2000; Beck, 2004/2006, Huntington, 1997).

The Skeptical Perspective

Skeptics (a.k.a. anti-globalists) take issue with the globalists' grand claims and cautions globalization studies scholars against getting caught up in the globalization frenzy. Skeptics assert that not only is globalization not new, they argue that the current age (in particularly the world economy) is less global in nature than it was in previous epochs (Hirst & Thompson, 1999). Believing globalists' declarations lack hard evidence, skeptics call for more quantitative, empirical approaches that account for nation-states' and individuals' differing circumstances and positions within the global economy. Skeptics reject assertions that globalization processes will impact people evenly and equally throughout the world; they believe that globalization could be extremely detrimental to large portions of the world. To them, a truly open global economy will only increase economic competition and so that traditionally disadvantaged countries will face even greater challenges. They point to the persistent inequality and poverty in Africa

and throughout the Global South as support for their disbelief and rejection of globalist claims (Kaplinsky, 2005).

Skeptics do not accept the notion that the world economy is or will become inclusive. They instead see triadic and regional economic scenarios where nation-states are retaining their power, becoming agents of globalization, and developing nation-state-based interventions and protections to maintain and secure their positions in the global economy. They point out that the core regions of North America, Europe and increasingly Western Asia have strong global presences and that they are actively shaping global economic and political affairs. Further, they see some nation-states, not only retaining their power and sovereignty, but becoming more powerful through globalization processes. As a result, they point out, subaltern resistances to globalization processes have emerged (Featherstone, 2008) just as some nation-states are undergoing a strengthening of nationalism and national identity (Robins, 1997; Kennedy, 2001).

For skeptics, uneven globalization processes present nation-states with less global power attractive opportunities to strengthen their populations' national identities through the rhetoric of outside threats, xenophobia, historical culture, and resistance (i.e., an "us versus them" mentality). On the other hand, powerful nation-states could attempt to strengthen their national identities through the rebranding of their nation-states' purposes and roles—i.e., expanding their authority. For instance, the United States's acceptance of (or insistence on) being the world's police force and beacon of democracy and freedom have greatly impacted the country's foreign relations as well as the citizenry's concept of their role in the global arena and what it means to be American.

Skeptics also reject globalists' predictions of the development of a homogenized global culture. They instead believe that because nation-states will respond to globalization differently, cultural clashes will arise (Huntington, 1997) and that, as previously mentioned, a return to hyper-nationalism and isolationism may ensue. They also point out that powerful, global nation-states' cultures and artifacts are proliferating throughout the world at much quicker paces—phenomenon sometimes referred to as Americanization and/or Westernization. For skeptics, these cultures, in particular American culture, are often the central consideration of globalist visions of a globalized, homogenized culture—a notion skeptics correctly describe as not being very global at all (Beck, Sznaider, & Winter, 2003).

Skeptics' future forecasts do not deviate much from current realities. While they see the potential utility of future international regulations, they believe that the current powerful nation-states will direct and shape those regulations, and in doing so will continue to legitimize and secure their power through regulation and international law. To skeptics, nation-states, inequality, triadic economies, and international and region conflict will characterize and dominate the future—very similar to the ways they do now and have throughout history.

The Transformationalist Perspective

Globalization studies scholars of the third wave are referred to as transformationalists. Their positions have been developed in response to both globalists and skeptics. These scholars tend to share the skeptics' trepidations regarding globalists'

grand claims and lack of empirical investigation. However, they do not accept that globalization is old, believing instead that the global dynamics at play in today's world are unprecedented in terms of speed, scope, and scale. This fact, they argue, demands a more nuanced examination than is possible in other analytic traditions (Held et al., 1999; Held & McGrew, 2003). More specifically, transformationalists contend that globalization theories should offer a more complex picture of globalization—one capable of capturing the continuation and transformation of existing structures as well as the emergence of new ones. Martell (2010) provides a useful description of the transformationalist perspective in the following passage:

In short, the third-wave contributions are critical of hyperglobalism and wish to formulate a more sophisticated picture, but feel, contrary to scepticism, that globalization is changing the world. They do not go as far as sceptics in that they say that real significant changes have happened. Third-wavers acknowledge the reality of globalizing changes and so defend a globalists position but one that is modified to be more complex than that of the hyperglobalists. (p. 23)

Transformationalists believe that more transnational entities and organizations have arisen as finance, crime, environmental issues, communication, and transport have all become more global. They contend that political, cultural, and economic forces are transforming nation-states and forcing them to sacrifice portions of their sovereignty to multinational corporations, international legal institutions, international markets, and global social movements. Continuing this line of argument, transformationalists assert that the nation-state will persist and remain an integral aspect of the global age, but their concessions as well as the emergence of new transnational organizations will in time lead to a new world order. Transformationalists see the effects and intensity of globalization

processes’ as a continuum that varies based on geography and other social factors. Rejecting pure core-periphery models, they support the idea of this continuum through a three-tier model that features a strong middle class of countries (i.e., semi-periphery) with growing economies (Martell, 2010). They point to poverty and inequality across Africa and other parts of the Global South as further support for their ideas about differentiating impacts. Transformationalists do not believe that nation-states and national identities are completely evaporating. However, they do believe that they are transforming as a result of the processes and structures that characterize the global age. They view the future of globalization as uncertain, believing that it can take different forms, be altered in light of global events (e.g., a new Great Recession) (Smith, 2014), or potentially even be reversed. For them, the open-ended and uncertain nature of globalization’s future undermines the utility of pre-deterministic ideas and elevates the importance of individual agency in shaping the time ahead (Holton, 2005).

As the transformationalist perspective in many ways serves as a foundation for this dissertation’s approach to globalization studies, it is critically important to understand its various pillars. Drawing from Held et al. (1999) presentation of “the transformationalist thesis” (p. 7-14), transformationalist’s tenants are further compared to globalist and skeptics in Table 4 below (See Table 4).

Table 4: Conceptualizing Globalization: Three Tendencies

	Hyperglobalists	Skeptics	Transformationalists
What's New?	A global age	Trading bloc, weaker geo-governance than earlier periods	Historically unprecedented levels of global interconnectedness
Dominant Features	Global capitalism, global governance, global civil society	World less interdependent than in 1890s	'Thick' (intensive and extensive) globalization
Power of National Governments	Declining or eroding	Reinforced or enhanced	Reconstituted, restructured
Driving Forces of Globalization	Capitalism and technology	States and markets	Combined forces of modernity
Pattern of Stratifications	Erosion of old hierarchies	Increased marginalization of South	New architecture of world order
Dominant Motif	McDonalds, Madonna, etc.	National interests	Transformation of political community
Conceptualization of Globalization	As a reordering of the framework of human action	As internationalization and regionalization	As the reordering of interregional relations and action at a distance
Historical Trajectory	Global civilization	Regional blocs/clash of civilizations	Indeterminate: global integration and fragmentation
Summary Argument	The end of the nation-state	Internationalization depends on state acquiescence and support	Globalization transforming state power and world politics

Note: Reproduced from *Global Transformations: Politics, Economics, and Culture* (p. 10) by L. Martell, A. McGrew, D. Goldblatt, & J. Perraton (1999), Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.

The Ideationalist Perspective

The ideationalist perspective is unique in that it conceptualizes globalization as a discourse. For ideationalists, what individuals (or nation-states or transnational organizations, etc.) think and believe about globalization is more important than what is actually happening. As Martell (2010) explains:

What we *think* about globalization is more important than globalization itself. We interpret the world as globalization, whether it is or not. This may even have a self-fulfilling effect. Because we think the world is globalizing we act as if it is. Globalization then has an ideational force on us (emphasis in original). (p. 36)

Developed from post-structuralist, postmodernist, social constructionist perspectives, as well as from scholars like Foucault, ideationalism emphasizes symbols and world consciousness above material artifacts. For adherents to this analytical paradigm, actions and beliefs are rooted in discourses, and these discourses constitute the means by which people understand and experience the world. Central to the considerations of ideationalists is the belief that discourses are not necessarily established through truths and facts; they can instead be ingrained in misnomers, falsehoods, and hoodwinks. Foucault contributes to this perspective, claiming that discourses create realms of knowledge through which individuals and organizations interpret and understand the world. So for Foucault and ideationalists, those who construct and control knowledge become very powerful, as they are controlling what and how people think (Foucault 1976/1978). To clarify, before the discourse of globalization flourished, globalization was not understood or classified; it certainly did not exist—conceptually or practically—as it does today.

Ideationalists are not concerned with whether globalization is historical or new, per se. For them the key development in the global era is the production, proliferation, and popularization of the ideas of globalization. This shifts perspectives away from political- and economic-centric models to an ideational one, and positions ideas regarding globalization on par with, if not ahead of, the actual processes and artifacts of globalization. As ideas of globalization became popularized, individuals and organizations developed a global consciousness and began to incorporate the notion of “the global” into their identities and actions. For ideationalists it is moot whether individuals’, organizations’, and nation-states’ national identities were strengthened through the rejection or weakened through the acceptance (or vice versa) of globalization, because the critical caveat for them is that these identities were, in part, constructed through their *ideas* of globalization. The discourses, rather than the realities, are shaping ideas and lived experiences. It is not “I act, therefore, I am”, it is “I think, therefore I am” (Descartes, 1637/1960).

As the discourse of globalization manifested into individuals’ consciousness, it, perhaps inadvertently, became the foundation for political and economic forms of globalization. It is therefore impossible to divorce the constructed ideas of globalization from the purposeful activities designed to pursue or resist globalization. The discourse of globalization underpins these activities and these activities come to characterize the processes and forms of globalization. However, discourses are not entirely ideational. They are in fact reflexive and embedded in the world’s realities. In this case, for example, the artifacts, developments and advancements attributed to globalization—regardless of

accuracy—can alter the discourse of globalization. The real world attacks of September 11th and the advent of the Internet have forever changed ideas about globalization, and by default, the discourse of globalization. Even though ideas have changed in light of real world events, they are still constructed ideas developed through life experiences and negotiated consciousness. For ideationalists, then, reality is subjective rather than objective, and it is positioned to persist or change at any moment.

The ideationalist perspective is crucial to this research, because, as Foucault consistently notes (1966/1970, 1969/1972, 1971/1971 1978, 1980, 1981, 1982), discourses are power. Discourses determine what can be known, how individuals and organizations understand the world, and, ultimately, how individuals and organizations act. Discourses' power also extends to their creators and shepherds because they have power over "truth" and can pervert it as they wish. It is essential that ideationalists be cognizant of bias as well as sensitive to the possibility that discourses can be skewed to promote the economic, political, social, and/or cultural interests of interested stakeholders. Evidence-based information and individual agency regarding the accuracy of discourse—together—constitute the only recourse that less powerful entities have to prevent powerful entities from coopting discourses and pursuing their agendas. These matters become even more important when competition for discourse control is limited, exclusionary, and/or absent of strict scrutiny—as it is for the globalization of sport discourse. Limited, unevaluated discourses present ever-present opportunities for corruption, misinformation, and myth perpetuation, and that, too often, align with would-be discourse controllers' self-enhancing agendas.

Globalization Debates

Predictably, the contested definitions and varying perspectives within the globalization literature has generated vigorous debates and strongly held positions—many of which have been noted above. These disagreements and stances have helped to both shape and confound the general discourse on globalization (Guillén, 2001; Hopper, 2006; Hay & Marsh, 2000). While not attempting to discuss all the debates within the globalization literature, this section briefly presents five of the most prominent of them. Some of these debates date back to the beginning of the globalization discourse's rise to prominence, while others have developed more recently. Like many academic debates, the answers to the ones that follow are contingent on ideological presuppositions, biases, and disciplinary principles. In the interest of clarity and in accordance with discourse analysts' calls to disclose established positions, a concrete stance (i.e., the author's opinion) for each debate is provided (Jacobs, 1999; Schegloff, 1997; Stubbs, 1999; Edwards & Skinner, 2009). The goal is to succinctly describe and address each debate and, if applicable, relate it to the globalization of sport. The following list presents five of the most prominent ongoing globalization debates.

1. Is globalization really happening?
2. Does globalization undermine the authority of the nation-state?
3. Can the uneven impacts of globalization be managed or minimized?
4. Does globalization produce homogeneity or heterogeneity?
5. Can globalization be reversed?

Is Globalization Really Happening?

This question is at the heart of the four different globalization perspectives, and its answer has clear implications to any understanding of or approach to globalization. It is

easy to see how a scholar's stance on this question will influence his or her subsequent and/or more detailed conceptualizations of the globalization of sport. If one believes (or does not believe) that globalization or the globalization of sport is happening, then that person's research, areas of interest, and entire approach will be skewed accordingly.

The simple answer to this question, from the author's perspective, is "yes", but just as important as the fact that globalization is happening is the fact that individuals and organizations think that it is happening. While recognizing that the historical foundations of globalization matter, the author further believes that the current realities of globalization cannot be overlooked. Therefore, the premise that while globalization processes are historical, their contemporary iterations are unprecedented in terms of scale, scope, and interconnectedness is accepted. For this author, globalization is happening on two related levels. First, it is happening in reality, especially in terms of the political, economic, cultural, and ecological dimensions of human society. While it can be debated whether the current state of economic globalization is unprecedented, one would be hard pressed to demonstrate an epoch where political, cultural, and ecological connections have been so intense, entangled, and widespread. Second, as the result of a prolific and diverse globalization discourse, globalization is also happening in individuals' minds and consequent activities. The same historical understanding applies to the globalization of sport, but with the recognition that certain forms of sport and sport are globalizing at unprecedented levels across multiple dimensions, including economically. This is not to say that all forms of sport are experiencing globalization in

the same way; however, it is to say that they are all experiencing it—to the detriment of some forms—and reacting to it through their understandings.

Does Globalization Undermine the Authority of the Nation-State?

The nation-state's authority is central to both the political dimension of globalization and the nation-state-based organization and conceptualization of international/global sport. First, it is believed that 'undermine' is a misleading, pejorative term; a more appropriate term, in the author's opinion, would be 'alter' or 'transform'. In addition, this question presupposes that the authority of nation-states has been constant and/or unchanged throughout history. This is simply untrue, nation-states' authorities, both domestic and international, have ebbed and flowed throughout history.

However, the short answer to this question is both "yes and no". Participating in the global market place, facilitating the free flow of capital and people, and cooperating with international organizations subjects nation-states to regulations that can diminish or limit their *traditional* authority. On the other hand, these same activities can produce fresh opportunities that allow nation-states to develop new authorities that may, in turn, result in greater power. Further, whether authority is undermined is heavily dependent upon the nation-states' global position and influence. Nation-states with coveted or powerful positions are less likely than their weaker counterparts to lose authority. This is because they usually act in accordance with their understandings of globalization—understandings that, not surprisingly, tend to support the growth of their long-term authority.

Much of the same logic extends to nation-states' authority regarding the globalization of sport. However, this is somewhat a scenario of comparing "apples to oranges," because international sport has been designed in terms of hierarchical systems with established structures that do not prioritize the nation-state above all else. Nation-states who partake in international sport organizations (e.g., IOC, FIFA, etc.) agree to restrictions and willingly sacrifice how aspects of their sports are globalized—they, in essence, agree to be undermined. Again, position and prestige matter as the more powerful nation-states have greater opportunity to increase their power while weaker nation-states who are trying to maintain their current authority have reduced opportunities to pursue expanded roles.

Further, technological advancements have made it significantly easier for sports and sport organizations, especially the ones in wealthy nation-states (e.g., NFL, MLB, etc.), to disseminate their products and showcase intertwined nationalistic symbols. Nation-states can manipulate their domestic sport's global appeal and present any message or idea that furthers their national interests. From an ideationalist standpoint, this can alter individuals' ideas regarding sport, the globalization of sport, and what forms of sport should be globalized. In theory, this could potentially distort the discourse of the globalization of sport, bolster the sport's original nation-state's authority, and display the powerful nation-state as a key decision-maker in globalization of sport. What should be clear from this discussion is that the authorities of nation-states especially when it comes to the globalization of sport are dynamic and ideational. More importantly, and, the potential exists for nation-states to use the globalization of sport and its discourse for

varying—perhaps sometimes even nefarious—reasons that serves their constructed global agendas.

Can the Uneven Impacts of Globalization be Managed or Minimized?

The author agrees with the allegation that globalization is creating uneven effects throughout the world, akin to how capitalistic policies have created unevenness within domestic borders. However the question itself is complex and immediately spurs additional questions, such as how are these impacts being measured, what does ‘managed’ entail, who would have the authority to level the field, what tools would be available to address unevenness, and/or to what degree does the unevenness need to be ‘minimized’—i.e., how even is even? Grappling with these questions would be a crucial aspect of any attempt to address and rectify globalization’s uneven impacts.

Assuming these questions could be solved, the answer is “yes...but they won’t”. The world powers are capable of addressing globalization processes’ uneven and unequal outcomes. The ‘winners’ of globalization could undoubtedly help the ‘losers’ and address their dire concerns, but they will not, just as they have not done throughout history. They will not do this because a new world order will be rooted in capitalistic ideals and practices—practices that have helped exacerbate contemporary issues. If foreign nation-states do supply aid, then it will not be enough to make long-term, meaningful impacts, because the ‘winners’ need the ‘losers’ to stay limited so they can leverage their “support” and exploit their resources and workforces. Foreign aid usually has a double agenda, and its non-altruistic components need to be considered.

Opponents of this stance will point to foreign nation-states' continued efforts to: 1) develop international policies addressing inequality; 2) provide direct aid in the form of cash, goods, and medical supplies; 3) apply debt forgiveness; 4) deliver infrastructural support (i.e., building bridges, roads, water treatment plants, etc.); 5) offer law enforcement support to address crime and corruption; 6) provide educational support and vocational training; and 7) assist with disease eradication. They will do this to demonstrate that foreign nation-states can and do help. However given all of this foreign aid, why are poverty, illness, and corruption the norms across the Global South rather than the exceptions? Put differently, much of the foreign aid provided throughout history has helped contribute to the Global South's current situation. This means that either the aid has been wasted or that the level of aid provided is just enough to keep the Global South where it is—in dire straights. Continued aid and continued poor outcomes provide the foundations of why it is believed that while globalization 'winners' could help the Global South, they will not do so in any meaningful fashion.

To this author, globalization processes have never been about creating evenness or equality, but rather to reinforce dominance and control. The global age is requiring the powerful to adjust their tactics and strategies, but the goals remain the same—to create and secure power while maintaining dominance. One way they will seek to ensure this dominance is to control the discourse of globalization. This view has direct parallels to the globalization of sport.

The globalization of sport, like general globalization, is producing unevenness. The most powerful, advanced international sport organizations, multinational sport

corporations, and nation-states are receiving the lion's share of the globalization of sport's benefits, while limiting their exposure to its drawbacks and consequences. These 'winners' could easily share their wealth, exposure, and prestige to address the 'loser's' needs, concerns, and agendas, but will only do so if the threats to their continued dominance are non-existent. For example, the IOC will always use the globalization of sport discourse to reaffirm Olympism and the notion that it is an exemplar of international sport, and never use it to support or bolster the efforts of other international sporting organizations—until they find it politically or economically advantageous.

Does Globalization Produce Homogeneity or Heterogeneity?

The answer to the question of whether globalization produces homogeneity or heterogeneity is that it does not completely produce either, but produces a degree of both. Individuals, organizations, ideologies, and structures can be essentially homogeneous or heterogeneous, but they will only ever approach (and never achieve), the genuine article—this is similar to repeatedly dividing a number by two; zero will be approached but never reached. Therefore, it is more useful to conceptualize globalization and the globalization of sport in terms of degrees of convergence. Globalization (of sport) will facilitate both high degrees of convergence and high degrees of divergence (i.e., resistance). For our purpose, it is more fruitful to look at how the discourse of globalization is simultaneously encouraging both convergence and divergence and who is advancing these agendas.

Can Globalization Be Reversed?

From the ideationalists perspective this is an unequivocal “no.” Even if every globalization process is ended or reversed, the ideas of globalization will persist in perpetuity. At no future time will individuals be able to conceptualize their identities or the world in the absence of a global consciousness. This consciousness cannot be unlearned. It certainly can be altered and transformed, but it cannot be forgotten.

On a materialistic level, the reversal of globalization is extremely unlikely—think 1,000,000,000:1 odds. The global citizenry has adopted the technologies and connectedness that characterize the contemporary age. Detangling the globe would be extremely complex, and such an endeavor would require a high degree of cooperation from a multitude of actors—which would only further entangle them at the global level (at least initially). From both ideational and materialistic standpoints, globalization and all its triumphs and perils are here to stay. This is not to say that the current forms of globalization are necessarily here to stay—they can definitely, and most likely will, be transformed—but it is very plausible that what is considered evidence for or artifact of globalization today will be so common in the future that they will be overlooked and not given a second glance.

Synthesis: Perspective of and Approach to Globalization

As Table 2, Table 3, and Table 4 demonstrate, globalization is, at best, an ambiguous term that can represent different phenomena to different scholars. Recognizing this confusion as well as, its potential impacts, and in the interest of clarity, a guiding synthesis to the subject is offered here. The synthesis below contains both definitional and proselytizing elements and is intended to further showcase the author's understanding and approach to globalization studies. This synthesis is confidently embedded in the ideationalist perspective, but it also aligns with the transformationalist literature. Support for each component is given in the subsequent subsections. Each subsection is intended to provide the rationale and scholarly support for the author's understanding of and approach to globalization studies. A definition of globalization is proffered following a discussion the synthesis's individual components.

Globalization studies requires:

- A transdisciplinary approach that captures and presents multiple dimensions;
- A critical perspective designed to do more than “unmask normal knowledge” (Mittelman, 2004, p. 221);
- A recognition of globalization's:
 - Historical and contemporary complexions;
 - Creation and perpetuation of a global consciousness;
 - Compression of time and space;
 - Unevenness and inequality.

The Multiple “Scapes” and Dimensions of Globalization

Globalization Studies Requires a Transdisciplinary Approach that Captures and Presents Multiple Dimensions;

Early scholars were often criticized for solely focusing on the economic aspects of globalization—seeing this dimension’s increased connections as the most important and influential. As the literature evolved other scholars expanded their views and started focusing on the multidimensionality of globalization (e.g., Steger, 2009; Appadurai, 1990; Ritzer, 2010, etc.). Accepting that strict, single discipline, and single-dimension approaches are too narrow, it is believed that an encompassing approach, utilizing multiple disciplines, is necessary when attempting to understand globalization—fittingly it is also believed that sport management requires such an approach to be adequately considered (Higham & Hinch, 2009). The first part of this section presents Appadurai’s (1990) seminal work on ‘imagined worlds’ and his five-dimension (which he refers to as “scapes”) conceptual framework developed to analyze the “global cultural economy”. The second part of this section presents Steger’s (2009) four dimensions of globalization (i.e., economic, political, cultural, and ecological), and highlights the parallels between his work and Appadurai’s. Underlying each of these works is a demand for the reemergence of academic generalists who have knowledge of multiple disciplines and can approach research through multiple disciplinary lenses. Among other things, these works offer a rejection of academic specialization, arguing that specialization has left many scholars too narrowly focused and unable to conceptualize the big picture.

Appadurai's Five "Scapes" of Globalization

In Arjun Appadurai's (1990) formative work, *Disjuncture and Difference in the Global Cultural Economy*, an insightful discussion is provided regarding the changing nature of global interactions and the tensions between cultural homogenization and cultural heterogenization—matters that continue to be debated within the globalization studies literature. Appadurai maintained that traditional models and understandings of the global economy and global culture do not align with widespread cultural contact characterizing the globalization age. He goes on to state:

The new global cultural economy has to be understood as a complex, overlapping, disjunctive order which cannot any longer be understood in terms of existing center-periphery models (even those that might account for multiple centers and peripheries). Nor is it susceptible to simple models of push and pull (in terms of migration theory) or surpluses and deficits (as traditional models of balance of trade), or of consumers and producers (as in most neo-Marxist theories of development)...The complexity of the current global economy has to do with certain fundamental disjunctures between economy, culture and politics which we have barely begun to theorize. (p. 296)

In an effort to address the weaknesses of the preexisting models, he proposed a framework for exploring the relationships and disjunctures among the five dimensions of global cultural flow: ethnoscaples, mediascapes, technoscapes, ideoscapes, and finanscapes (See Table 5). In doing so, he asserted that while each of those disjunctures had been in existence for centuries, "the sheer speed, scale and volume has become so great that they are now central to the politics of global culture" (p. 301). He was quick to point out that the dimensions, even though they were "deeply disjunctive and highly unpredictable", combined to overthrow "pure capitalism" and produce a new,

“disorganized capitalism” rooted in the disjunctures among economy, culture, and politics. This disorganization, he claimed, occurred resultant to the global cultural flows’ dynamic, ever-changing nature as well as the related development of ‘imagined worlds’. These imagined worlds were defined as “the multiple worlds which are constituted by the historically situated imaginations of persons and groups spread around the globe” (p. 296-297). This meant, according to Appadurai, that multiple realities—one no more “real” than another—exist, and that they are dependent upon their creator, their location of creation, and their histories. For him, realities are by definition ideational. The “scapes” represent particular realities/mentalities that allow individuals and groups to comprehend their shrinking worlds and provide resources for identities that are no longer exclusively anchored to the modern nation state or traditional tribes. The “scapes”, under his conception, are nebulous, chaotic, amorphous, of varying size and influence at any given time, and capable of flowing in multiple directions. For Appadurai, the successful conceptualization of globalization, the new global economy, and culture dynamics at play in the age of globalization requires an understanding of various perspectives regarding diasporas, diffusion, and the movement of cultural products.

Table 5: Appadurai's Scapes Defined/Described

Scape	Definition/Description
Ethnoscapes	"...the landscape of persons who constitute the shifting world in which we live: tourists, immigrants, refugees, exiles, guestworkers and other moving groups and persons constitute an essential feature of the world, and appear to affect the politics of and between nations to a hitherto unprecedented degree" (p. 297).
Technoscapes	"...the global configuration, also ever fluid, of technology, and of the fact that technology, both high and low, both mechanical and informational, now moves at high speeds across various kinds of previously impervious boundaries" (p. 297).
Finanscapes	The global flow of capital. "...the disposition of global capital is now a more mysterious, rapid and difficult landscape to follow than every before, as currency markets, national stock exchanges, and commodity speculations move mega-monies through national turnstiles at blinding speed, with vast absolute implications for small differences in percentage points and time units" (p. 298).
<p>"...the critical point is that the global relationship between ethnoscapes, technoscapes and finanscapes is deeply disjunctive and profoundly unpredictable since each of these landscapes is subject to its own constraints and incentives (some political, some informational and some techno-environmental), at the same time as each acts as a constraint and a parameter for movements in the others. Thus even an elementary model of global political economy must take into account the shifting relationship between perspectives on human movement, technological flow and financial transfers which can accommodate their deeply disjunctive relationships with one another" (p. 298).</p>	
Mediascapes	"...refer both to the distribution of the electronic capabilities to produce and disseminate information (newspapers, magazines, television stations, film productions studios, etc.), which are now available to a growing number of private and public interests throughout the world; and to the images of the world created by these media" (p. 298-299).
Ideoscapes	"...concatenation of images, ideas, terms, and narratives that are often political and explicitly oriented to capturing state power or a piece of it" (p. 299).

At the time, Appadurai's work was in many ways unique in the body of scholarship regarding globalization in that it featured a multidimensional approach and a rigorous articulation of the challenges and complexities associated with the study of the subject. In terms of impact, it is perhaps noteworthy that the issues that Appadurai discussed have remained among the dominant focal points of the field (even if no accepted agreement has been made on how to capture, measure, and examine their various dynamics).

Given its novelty, the fact that a number of positions taken in the work remain vehemently contested should not surprise. For example, Appadurai is a proponent of deterritorialization (Deleuze & Guattari, 1972/1977), claiming that it renders nation-states less powerful and less critical when analyzing global culture and globalization in general. He states, "the configuration of cultural forms in today's world as fundamentally fractal, that is, as possessing no Euclidian boundaries, structures, or regularities" (1990b, p. 20). Appadurai also concludes that individuals, as a result of their detachment from nation-states and development of imagined worlds (i.e., imaginative power) will develop more agency and pursue agendas free of, or less confined by, territorial and national constraints. He claims, "the imagination is now central to all forms of agency, is itself a social fact, and is the key component of the new global order" (1990b, p. 5). Finally, the "scapes", imagined worlds, and increased agency will, in his view, liberate people from established norms and truths and create "an arena for conscious choice, justification and representation, the latter often to multiple, and spatially dislocated audiences" (1990b, p. 18).

Not all scholars, as demonstrated above, have accepted Appadurai's ideas, claiming he underestimated the power of nation-states and international institutions as well as their power to continue to control the global order. Nevertheless, Appadurai's work is critically important, and it serves as an important precursor to calls for future multidimensional frameworks that utilize numerous disciplines to address ongoing globalization debates.

Steger's Four Dimensions of Globalization

In the second edition of Manfred Steger's (2009) book, *Globalization: A Very Short Introduction*, four distinct dimensions (i.e., social processes) of globalization (i.e., economic, political, cultural, and ecological) are presented along with several examples of different ideologies of globalization (e.g., market globalism, justice globalism, and jihadist globalism). He refers to these ideologies as "globalism" and states that they are "ideologies that endow the concept of globalization with particular values and meanings" (p. 99). Steger's discussions of 'globalism' provide support for the ideationalist perspective, as he demonstrates how globalization has been coopted and infused with additional values. Globalisms indicate how the ideas of globalization can be used to pursue various agendas, and how the ideas about globalization—as they inspire action—have power. Throughout the book, Steger goes to great lengths to remind his readers that investigations of individual dimensions must be done while recognizing the amalgamated and complex nature of globalization phenomena. He states, "one of the central tasks for

Global Studies as an emerging field must be to devise better ways for gauging the relative importance of each dimension without losing sight of the interconnected whole” (p. 12).

For him, and for this author, this task can only be accomplished through the employment of multiple disciplines’ theories and empirical research. Before presenting his *very short* definition—“Globalisation refers to the expansion and intensification of social relations and consciousness across world-time and world-space” (p. 15), he posits that four overlapping themes/characteristics that are at the core of globalization can be gleaned from previous globalization scholarship (See Table 6). He refers back to these themes throughout his work, often using them as rationale and justification for his positions. Finally, before going into the specific dimensions of globalization, Steger addresses the question of whether globalization is a new phenomenon. He concludes that while cultural contact has occurred throughout history, the current age (i.e., since approximately 1970) of global exchange, interdependence, and technological advancement represents a “quantum leap in the history of globalization” (p. 36). Calling this epoch “contemporary globalization”, Steger limits his analysis to this period. He states, “...we will limit the application of the term ‘globalization’ to the contemporary period while keeping in mind that the dynamic driving these processes actually started thousands of years ago” (p. 36). The same approach is taken in this dissertation.

Table 6: Steger's Four Qualities at the Core of Globalization

1. "Globalization involves the <i>creation</i> of new, and the <i>multiplication</i> of existing, social networks and activities that cut across traditional political, economic, cultural, and geographical boundaries". (p. 14)
2. "Globalization is reflected in the <i>expansion</i> and the <i>stretching</i> of social relations, activities, and interdependencies". (p. 14)
3. "Globalization involves the <i>intensification</i> and <i>acceleration</i> of social exchanges and activities". (p. 14)
4. "Globalization processes do not occur merely on an objective, material level but also involve the subjective place of human consciousness. The compression of the world into a single place increasingly makes global the frame of reference for human thought and action. Hence, globalization involves both macro-structures of community and the micro-structures of personhood". (p. 15)

Note: Emphasis in original

The following paragraphs briefly present Steger's four dimensions of globalization. While each dimension is presented separately it is important to remain cognizant of the interrelated and intertwined composition of globalization in terms of how each of these dimensions relate to each other—an effort Steger goes to great lengths to illustrate throughout his work. They are also presented separately here because Steger's dimensions serve as the foundation for the quantitative and qualitative coding system employed in later chapters in this dissertation. This is explained in Chapter 3.

The Economic Dimension of Globalization

Steger defines economic globalization as "the intensification and stretching of economic interrelations across the globe" (p. 38) and declares that the transformation of the ways goods are produced, organized, and exchanged—aided by technological advancements—is an obvious, unique aspect to economics in the current age. However, following World War II but before the current age (i.e., approximately 1970), the world's

economic system largely flowed from decisions made at during the 1944 Bretton Woods Conference in Bretton Woods, New Hampshire. At this conference, victorious nation-states from the Global North abandoned their isolation-inspired interwar (1918-1939) economic policies and, in a commitment to expanding international trade, established new regulations for international trade (Steil, 2013). During the conference the nation-states created three international economic organizations: the International Monetary Fund (IMF); International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (later known as the World Bank); and the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT). The IMF's responsibility was to monitor and administer the international monetary system. The World Bank was created to provide loans for Europe's post war reconstruction. The World Bank's purview was later expanded to providing funds for developing nation-states' domestic, industrial projects. The GATT, the World Trade Organization's predecessor, was charged with developing and enforcing multilateral trade agreements (Steger, 2009).

Nation-states' economic activities and approach to international trade under the Bretton Woods system nation-states is sometimes referred to as 'controlled capitalism' (Schweitzer, 1956; Miller, Coleman, Connolly, & Ryan, 1991). Controlled capitalism allowed nation-states to limit their exposure and shield themselves from risks inherent to truly free markets. Under the Bretton Woods system, nation-states were able to control the flow of money in and out of their territories, which essentially protected them from foreign financial turmoil and global monetary fluctuations. At home, nation-states imposed high taxation rates on their wealthy citizens and corporations. These high

taxation rates and the emergence of rising wages helped facilitate the expansion of the welfare state, an increase in social services, and the strengthening of the Global North's middle class. As the 1960s became the 1970s, Global North politicians who supported controlled capitalism suffered a series of electoral defeats at the hands of conservative politicians who supported neoliberal economic and social policies. The Bretton Woods system lasted nearly three decades, but these subsequent policies supported the development of a new global economic order based on continuous expansion of free markets (Steger, 2009).

Steger contends that the departure from the Bretton Woods system in the early 1970s, which President Richard Nixon prompted, in favor of neoliberal economics changed the global economic order. Further, President Ronald Reagan and British Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher, as champions of neoliberalism, helped legitimize this new world order by consciously using the neoliberal discourse to link globalization to the liberation of the world's economies and alleviation of its social ills. Neoliberalism was further legitimized through the collapse of the communist Soviet Union—which at the time was, by far, the biggest threat to a global, neoliberal marketplace. As a result, Steger states, “the three most significant developments related to economic globalization have been the internationalization of trade and finance, the increasing power of transnational corporations, and the enhanced role of international economic institutions” (p. 41-42). These enormous transnational corporations, influential international economic institutions, and expansive regional trading systems are the foundations of the current global economic order.

The Political Dimension of Globalization

Steger defines political globalization as the “intensification and expansion of political interrelations across the globe” (p. 58). He claims that these processes of intensification and expansion expose a number of pertinent political issues, namely the uncertain future and ever-evolving functions of nation-states, the rise and role of intergovernmental, non-governmental, and supraterritorial institutions (i.e., global governance), and the direction of global political systems. Similar to previous perspectives, discussed above, Steger warns against accepting the notion that the nation-state is doomed. He instead offers a more limited argument implying that they may have difficulties performing their traditional roles due to the fact that globalization processes have unsettled traditional political arrangements. Ultimately non-committal on the outcome of the new political arrangements, he indicates that resistance and opposition are as likely as the emergence of a cosmopolitan democracy. Contending that contemporary globalization has weakened the boundaries between foreign and domestic politics and fostered the development of supraterritorial social spaces and institutions, he states “at the onset of the twenty-first century, the world finds itself in a transitional phase between the modern nation-state system and postmodern forms of global governance” (p. 66).

The Cultural Dimension of Globalization

Steger defines cultural globalization as the “intensification and expansion of cultural flow across the globe” (p. 71). Recognizing the term ‘culture’ as general and non-specific he clarifies culture to include the symbolic construction, articulation,

dissemination, and expression of meaning—this dimension would include sport and is particularly relevant to the globalization of sport. He is quick to point out the role of technology in contemporary cultural globalization, and its ability to divorce meaning from location and vice versa. He states:

As images and ideas can be more easily and rapidly transmitted from one place to another, they profoundly impact the way people experience their everyday lives. Today, cultural practices frequently escape fixed localities such as town and nation, eventually acquiring new meanings in interaction with dominant global themes. (p. 72)

Claiming that the cultural globalization scholarship is too vast and contains too many questions, Steger puts forth three essential themes: the creation, or lack thereof, of a global culture, the role of transnational media in shaping identities, ideas, and lives, and the globalization of language. Reiterating the globalists' and skeptics' views of global culture, he claims that they are not totally incompatible as:

[t]he contemporary experience of living and acting across cultural borders means both the loss of traditional meanings and the creation of new symbolic expressions. Reconstructed feelings of belonging coexist in uneasy tension with a sense of placelessness...Given the complexity of global cultural flows, one would actually expect to see uneven and contradictory effects. (p. 77)

To Steger, the rise of media empires and their role in disseminating cultural expression and values—i.e., cultural discourses—is of great concern. He claims that their rise has eradicated small, independent cultural innovators, blurred the line between journalistic and business decisions, and lead to the “depoliticization of social realities and weakening of civic bond” (p. 79). In essence, he posits that more and more media empires, stakeholders, and advertisers are controlling discourse creation and perpetuation.

They are controlling the ‘truth’ and these ‘truths’ are shaping people identities, expressions, and ideas. Recognizing the media’s role in the discourse of globalization is crucial to this dissertation.

The Ecological Dimension of Globalization

Without a specific definition of ecological globalization, one can imagine it would read something akin to “intensification and expansion of ecological interrelations across the globe.” Again highlighting that each dimension can influence other dimensions, he states that this is most visible in the ecological dimension of globalizing and notes the widespread attention environmental concerns have received. He writes, “the ecological impacts of globalization are increasingly recognized as the most significant and potentially life threatening” (p. 84). He correctly points out that uncontrolled population growth and extravagant consumption have exacerbated environmental degradation. To illustrate that environmental issues are exemplary globalization issues, he points out that transboundary pollution, global warming, climate change, and species extinction cannot be contained within national boundaries and do not have isolated cause and effect. They are global issues caused by the aggregation of human activities—issues that demand international recognition and cooperation.

While each dimension of globalization presented above is novel and important in its own right, it is necessary to understand that all of them are inextricably related and they, therefore, must be considered in aggregate, especially when examining the discourse of globalization driving the contemporary age.

Critical Globalization Studies

Globalization Studies Requires...a Critical Perspective Designed to do more than

“Unmask Normal Knowledge”

Investigations into globalization-related phenomena can be greatly enhanced through the utilization of critical perspectives where “scholars persistently question the positivist faith in empiricism...and, rather, examine how facts are constructed and whose interest they serve (Mittelman, 2004, p. 220). Critical scholars should be suspicious, question established norms and meanings (especially those popularized in the media and by invested parties), and deconstruct “common sense” propositions (Gramsci, 1971, 2000). The critical approach recognizes that “common sense” is dependent and reflexive of an individual’s strata, lived experiences, interactions, social group, and place. Therefore, there is not one, but many versions of “common sense”. These versions can and will change and fragment at any time. As Gramsci points out, critical perspectives are not designed to simply oppose, but should bring about recognitions of conditions and how conditions create multiple versions of common sense. The classic critical theorists (e.g., Marx, Weber, Durkheim, Gramsci, etc.) were suspicious of their era’s common sense propositions and highly skeptical of institutional truths and accepted taxonomies—this suspicion and skepticism is what characterizes fruitful critical approaches (Douglas, 1976). Mittelman (2004) describe critical scholarship well, stating:

To delimit meaningful knowledge, critical scholarship thus looks to do more than unmask normal knowledge. A critical orientation calls for not only deconstructing extant knowledge and practice, but also constructing new knowledge about what ought to exist on the basis of transformed relations of power. (p. 220)

Critical approaches are uniquely suited for globalization studies, and especially for examinations of the discourse of globalization. When critically examining discourse researchers must simultaneously question established truths, opponents and proponents of positions, rationale for positions, what groups are not represented, conditions limiting participation, and representation. In total critical approaches require researchers to read above the text and deconstruct true intent and meaning. The “common sense” of globalization discourse is prime for critical examination as multiple stakeholders have agendas, misinformation is as common as accurate information, and, because, it is discussed through a variety of perspectives and historically constructed ideologies—all of which can alter the facts and truths regarding the subject. However, critical globalization scholars must be self-monitoring and aware of their own conditions and biases, in terms of how they impact their interpretations.

Mittelman (2004) outlines five components that critical globalization studies should include:

1. *Reflexivity*: An awareness of the relationships among knowledge, material, and political conditions. It is necessary to probe historical origins and embedded perspectives (Cox, 1986).
2. *Historicism*: An incorporation of time considerations (Cox, 2002) that correct ahistorical approaches.

3. *Decentering*: An incorporation of multiple globalization perspectives from its centers and margins. Critical scholars should be able to conceptualize globalization from the inside-out and the outside-in.
4. *Crossovers*: An incorporation of the social sciences and other complimentary branches of knowledge (e.g., humanities, natural sciences, etc.).
5. *Strategic Transformations*: The development of transformative actions that can serve practical purposes by establishing counter hegemonies and resisting prevailing power.

Characteristics of Globalization

This section presents the accepted characteristics of globalization that undergird and direct this dissertation. Several of these characteristics have been briefly addressed above, but here a more detailed explanation and rationale is provided. They flow from the fact that globalization is a set of long-term (i.e., historical), yet contemporary multidimensional processes that have prompted the compression of space and time, the development of a global consciousness, and uneven outcomes for different societies and regions.

Globalization's Historical and Contemporary Complexion

Globalization Studies Requires...a Recognition of Globalization's Historical and Contemporary Complexion

Globalization is a set of long-term, historical multidimensional processes (Castells, 2000; Held et al., 1999; Steger, 2009), but the contemporary age is unique and deserving of explicit examination. These historical processes—which encompass most arenas of social life and human activities—are transforming, and, therefore, need to be historically positioned and contemporarily monitored in order to produce well-rounded depictions. It is impossible to separate the history out of these processes, but these histories need to be used as backdrops and guides, not restrictive conceptualizations, to contemporary interpretations. In short, it is necessary to balance history with the present when examining globalization.

Conceptualizing these processes as evolving, one can view globalization as a progression that is not yet complete. This implies that globalization outcomes are not

permanent, and that different outcomes may emerge. While it is undetermined what globalization outcomes will entail, how long they will take to emerge, or how they would impact the various parts of the world, the literature is clear that globalization is changing the conceptualizations and realities of social life and human activities.

Global Consciousness

Globalization Studies Requires...a Recognition of Globalization's Propensity to Create and Perpetuate a Global Consciousness

The second characteristic associated with globalization is the notion that individuals, organizations, and corporations from around the globe are developing a global consciousness (Robertson, 1992, 2003). This has caused some to call for the incorporation and teaching of such perspectives in educational curriculums (Mansilla & Gardner, 2007). While 'global consciousness' is another fuzzy term associated with globalization, "global consciousness" simply implies a larger (i.e., more intense) acknowledgement of an integrated world—the development of a 'global imaginary' (Steger, 2009). This consciousness can be observed in a variety of social areas. For instance, Steger (2009) states, "the rising global imaginary is also powerfully reflected in the current transformation of political ideologies—the ideas and beliefs that go into the articulation of concrete political agendas and programmes" (p. 10). More and more people from all over the world are rejecting the tenets of isolationism, and accepting that decisions and actions can have consequences, both good and bad, in far off lands and at home.

The emerging global consciousness has two principal features. First, as global events, global interconnectedness (Tomlinson, 1999), and interdependence become more salient and harder to ignore, societies and cultures are becoming more reflexive and beginning to view globalization as a potential threat to their local norms and identities. Each local is viewing globalization through its own “localized lens” and, therefore, its conceptualization of globalization is being negotiated through localization. Robertson (1994, 1997) refers to this process as ‘glocalization’, claiming that the trends of homogenization and heterogenization coexist, and that the local assigns meaning to global influences—therefore the two (i.e., the local and the global) are interdependent and enablers of each other. Robertson (1992) argues that the globalization age’s ideals and artifacts are intertwined with the “universalization of particularism” and the “particularization of universalism” (p. 102).

Secondly, and perhaps somewhat paradoxically, people, even while attempting to preserve the local, are perceiving, recognizing, and identifying themselves as global citizens. The notion of “think global, act local” is no longer a slogan, but an evolving ideology driving complex notions and movements (e.g., cosmopolitanism, environmentalism, secularism, etc.). Individuals and organizations are seeing themselves as global citizens with global identities, imaginations, and responsibilities. Globalization processes are pushing the development of a global consciousness in two distinct ways: 1) through the fears of a deteriorating local and an unknown future; and 2) through the hope of creating a better global. Finally, it should be noted that a global consciousness does not imply the notion of a global consensus. In fact, far from it, the global consciousness is

filled with tensions (e.g., local vs. global, acceptance vs. resistance, etc.). Exactly how these tensions will manifest is not yet fully known or understood, however.

Compression of Space and Time

Globalization Studies Requires...a Recognition of Globalization's Compression of Time and Space

The third characteristic of globalization is the compression of space and time (Appaduria, 1990, Giddens, 1990; Scholte, 2000, 2001; McGuire, 2000; Sassen, 2003, 2007; Steger, 2009). Spatiotemporal considerations are a mainstay in globalization theories. However, this compression had been previously noted. For example, Heidegger's (1950/1971, 1927/1962) thoughts regarding the "abolition of distance" serves as one example of existing thoughts on the subject:

All distances in time and space are shrinking. Man now reaches overnight, by plane, places which formerly took weeks and months of travel. He now receives instant information, by radio, of events he formerly learned about only years later if at all. (1950/1971, p. 165)

Giddens (1990, 1998) has, moreover, posited that global media and improved informational, technological, and transportation technologies are stretching social relationships, and as a result the world is experiencing increased interdependence (Mcguire, 2000; Higham & Hinch, 2009) and enhanced cultural contact (Appadurai, 2000; Ward, Bochner, & Furnham, 2001). To Giddens (1990, 1998), this is forcing a major reorganization and reformulation of the interactions among individuals, groups, and organizations as distant influences affect individual, local behaviors.

Another aspect of the space-time compression concerns territory (i.e., nation-states) and their imaginary, yet enforced, borders. These borders and the idea of the nation state have served as the historical foundations and unit of observation for a plethora of social sciences, namely political science and economics, but the processes of globalization have caused some to declare the world ‘borderless’ (Öhman, 1990).

In fact, a number of scholars look at globalization processes as a direct threat to the idea of nation-states, claiming that not only are their borders becoming outmoded, but that nationalism and national identities are also soon to be relics of the past (Jha, 2006). While not completely accepting the premises that borders, nation-states, and national identities are no longer viable, it does appear that the relevance of place and territory, especially in the global consciousness, is somewhat waning (Polley, 2004, Scholte, 2005). Some point to this as evidence of deterritorialization. Scholte (2000) defines deterritorialization as “the growth of ‘supraterritorial’ relations between people” (p. 46), and presents it as a central component of globalization. Put differently, technologies and markets have started to erode the traditional geographic and distance-based barriers—global communications and commerce can now take place from anywhere. International collaboration and information sharing has never been easier—a person in St. Louis, MO, can read the headlines in Istanbul, Turkey, and in moments take economic action. Individuals can remain actively engaged in the events from ‘back home’, and choose to disengage from their host community’s culture and traditions. While all this has been possible, to one degree or another, throughout history, it has never been so accessible,

reliable, and affordable. Defining factors of contemporary globalization processes are their “sheer speed, scale, and volume” (Appadurai, 1990, p. 301).

Unequal Experiences and Outcomes

Globalization Studies Requires...a Recognition of Globalization's Unevenness and Inequality

Fourth, and undoubtedly the most accepted characteristic of globalization is that the outcomes, influences, and effects of globalization are uneven and being experienced unequally—ultimately producing ‘winners and losers’. Globalization processes are producing uneven outcomes because they are incomplete, their pace varies over time, and not all countries and territories are integrated into global systems (Hirst & Thompson, 1996; Wade, 1990; Wallerstein, 2000; Stiglitz, 2002). Further, unevenness and inequality is a purposeful result, as this is always the outcome of capitalism. Advocates of increased interconnectedness, especially economically, devised their schemes to maximize profits through market penetration, not to equally share resources and improve global quality of life. Globalization was designed and has been perpetuated to produce winners and losers.

Numerous factors have exacerbated globalization's unevenness and inequalities among nation-states, these include: 1) geography; 2) size; 3) accessible natural resources; 4) scale; 5) lack of infrastructure; 6) diverse starting positions in terms of industrialization and political stability (Waters, 2001); 7) a lack of enforceable international regulations; 8) a lack of domestic and global institutional infrastructures to proactively handle globalization's perils and advantages (De Soto, 2008; Mendelsohn, 2008) have all exacerbated globalization's unevenness and inequalities. Adams (2011)

when talking about select countries' (particularly small countries) inability to integrate or fully participate in the global economy, stated "they lack sufficient resources, infrastructure, technology, scale, or contact with the rest of the world—some of them are landlocked—to participate fully in the global economy" (p. 151).

Globalization processes and their outcomes are asymmetrical and imply interconnectedness more than interdependence, as interdependence conveys a sense of equality. To support their claims, scholars point to the persistent North-South divide, the continued extreme poverty affecting billions of people throughout the world (Collier, 2008), the increasing wealth gap within both developing and developed countries (Malloch-Brown, 2008), continued wage inequality, uneven cultural flows, and the willful, perhaps unethical, acceptance of repression, oppression, corruption, and exploitation seen throughout much of the developed and developing world.

While some refute a number of these claims (Dollar, 2005; Kacowicz, 2007) and point out that all outcomes are still unknown (Milanovic, 2003), many seem to miss the critical components concerning the uneven results of globalization processes—globalization processes, especially economic globalization and trade liberalization, were not designed, nor imagined, to produce equal outcomes regardless of the claims found in supporting rhetoric. At best they were designed to explicitly benefit some countries, and, *hopefully*, provide collateral benefits and improve other countries' overall status. Essentially globalization is a byproduct of governmental policies and technological advancements, neither of which implies or explicitly strives for equality. Governmental policies are usually made through the realist paradigm—meaning they are made to pursue

a nation-state's best interest, and not necessarily any other nation-state's or region's best interest. The same can be said regarding the development of advanced communications and transportation technologies—these were not necessarily designed to 'shrink' the world; they were developed to produce capital and appease shareholders and/or attract future investments.

Secondly, even if these policies and advancements were made in the name of equality, which they were not, countries' resources and infrastructures were not equal or in the same starting position. If globalization is thought of as a race with nation-states as the contestants, it would be decisively unfair—some countries would be starting miles from the finish line with nothing more than their bare feet and untrained legs, while others would be considerably closer to the finish and sitting in rocket-propelled crafts. The point here is that nobody would expect a tie or use the same criteria to evaluate the contestants. However, they would also not forego the more disadvantaged racers, and preclude them from eventually crossing the finish line. Considering that globalization is currently a set of incomplete long-term processes, some growing pains and unexpected ramifications should be expected. A more fruitful debate would center on whether these uneven outcomes will persist and, if so, who, if anyone, has the responsibility to address these resulting inequalities.

Towards a Critical Definition of Globalization

In light of the cornucopia of existing globalization definitions, the confusion surrounding the term, and the potential negative impacts of offering another definition of globalization, the following definition was developed with significant caution. This

definition was developed in the critical tradition and builds upon the synthesis offered above. This definition is distinct as it offers several critical caveats that are absent from nearly all other definitions. This definition is designed to capture the origins of globalization processes, while acknowledging the ideational tenet that globalization “has an ideational force on us” (Martell, 2010, p. 36).

Globalization is the amalgamation of *interactions* among an expansive set of historical, human-made multidimensional macro- and micro-processes that have resulted in theoretical and tangible outputs and inputs that exert constant influence on how humans conduct themselves in and perceive the world.

Now that the definition has been provided, it is worthwhile to deconstruct its components. Explaining the definition’s components is designed to demonstrate each key word’s purpose and illustrate how the proposed definition parallels and/or differs from previous conceptualizations of globalization. Each component is explained below.

This definition asserts that “globalization is the amalgamation of interactions among an expansive set of historical, human-made multidimensional macro- and micro-processes”. Like Steger’s (2009) and Appadurai’s (1990) approaches, this definition does limit globalization to a single social process. Alternatively, globalization is viewed as the unification of interacting processes that manifest in economic, social, cultural, technological, and ecological activities and structures. These processes, manifestations, and interactions occur on “macro” and “micro” scales and do not follow a prescribed path. In other words, to understand globalization scholars must look at the interactions among social processes and structures both on macro and micro scales. The interactions among social processes that happen at the world’s various levels in the world’s various

regions are the essences of globalization. Therefore, globalization is not a sum of the features of globalization (e.g., compression of time and space, inequality, advanced communication technologies, etc.), but, rather, the grand sum of the interactions among macro social and micro social processes. The phenomenon of globalization occurs within and between the interactions of social processes, and the outcomes of these interactions are only important insofar as how they impact the future of social processes and their interactions.

To reiterate, globalization is the aggregate of the interactions among social processes. For example, it is not solely economic nor exclusively cultural, and it is not the combination of the cultural and economic processes—it is the aggregation of all the *interactions* among all social processes. The outcomes and artifacts of globalization are secondary, as the power structures, discourses, facilitators, and people (i.e., experts) involved in the interactions among social processes are of the utmost importance. Understanding the interactions among social processes and their underlying structures is the most constructive way to approach globalization and is the only approach that will capture social processes' intertwined nature and paramount importance. Finally, scholars should view these interactions as dynamic, reflexive, and most importantly constant. Interactions build upon previous interactions which is one reason that globalization is so difficult to capture in real time. Understanding the evolution of interactions and the fact that these interactions build upon themselves is a necessary step in unmasking globalization.

Globalization is not limited to single field, discipline, or social process. It takes place in “an expansive set” of human activities that are not always easily defined or explicitly undertaken in the name of globalization. Globalization is an amalgamation of activities and decisions. Globalization cannot be pinpointed or limited to one set of activities. The study of globalization requires the utilization of broad perspectives and the recognition of its presence in nearly all of contemporary history’s engagements and activities.

Globalization is “historical”. The inclusion of this word indicates the appreciation of the historical forces that that helped shaped the contemporary epoch and provide support for scholars claiming globalization is not new. However, it is also used to make a distinction about different ages of human history. In other words, the definition offered here refers to what Steger (2010) refers to “contemporary globalization” (i.e., from the 1970s to present), but acknowledges that the expansive set of historical activities that preceded the contemporary age.

While many other definitions recognize globalization history and collage-like origins, few take time to recognize that globalization processes are “human-made” and *people* made rational, perhaps uninformed, decisions to pursue activities that spawned and facilitated globalization processes. Globalization is not organic, it was not inevitable—it is the result of a series of human-made decisions and actions. The world was not *destined* to be globalized and globalization was not *destined* for anything. The way the world became globalized and how globalization processes came to be understood

are all the byproducts of human choice. Human beings consciously decided how they would approach the world and interact with the people in it.

Therefore, because of human involvement and the goal of bringing about positive social change, globalization's espoused attributes and outcomes require examinations rooted in the critical tradition. Accepting that humans are the architects of globalization processes, the creators and prophets of the discourse of globalization, and employers of globalization activities affords scholars the opportunity to question accepted principles, stakeholders' motives, and who is benefitting from the current status quo. This critical questioning affords scholars the opportunity to deconstruct common sense, criticize power structures, proffer social critiques, and offer theories that seek "to liberate human beings from the circumstances that enslave them" (Horkheimer, 1982, p. 224). The critical approach encourages scholars to apply their knowledge, question the accepted, and work toward improving people's lives. To accomplish these goal and in accordance with critical theory, scholars need to be versed in and able to integrate all the major social sciences.

The second part of the proposed definition, "...that have resulted in theoretical and tangible outputs and inputs that exert constant influence on how humans conduct themselves in and perceive the world", indicates these interactions' outcomes and ideological impacts. The aforementioned interactions produced a plethora of theoretical and tangible outputs, and these outputs become inputs in future interactions. The cyclical nature between inputs and outputs and outputs and inputs must be appreciated and recognized as factors influencing interactions. Further, the incorporation of exerting

“constant influence” is an acknowledgement of the ideationalist perspective, but deviates in that it declares that the interactions among social processes are also influencing what people think about globalization. So while what people think about globalization are impacting these interactions, the interactions, themselves, are influencing what people think. In other words, these interactions are influencing people’s ideas about globalization and these ideas are influencing future interactions. To sum, globalization should be thought of as the amalgamation of ongoing, dynamic interactions among social processes that reflect previous conceptualization and inspire new ideas. It is here—in these interactions and ideas—that people chose how to act in and what to believe about the global age.

Alternative Paradigms Within Globalization Studies

The above sections have presented globalization as an overarching, paradigm designed to capture all the changes associated with the dynamic, contemporary global age. However, using the term in this way has concerned some scholars (e.g., Tomlinson, 2007), and prompted others to claim globalization is just *one* kind of contemporary global change (O’Byrne & Hensby, 2011). As O’Byrne and Hensby (2011) state:

Globalization is best defined as one particular form of contemporary global change; that much of the literature associated with it is not actually *about* globalization but about some other process which may or may not be contradictory to it; and that there is an intellectual validity to *all* of this literature, not within the study of ‘globalization’..., but as contributors to alternative paradigms within the interdisciplinary field of *global studies* (emphasis and punctuation in original). (p. 1-2)

To recognize this literature and alternative approaches to globalization studies, the following section presents seven alternative paradigms: liberalization, polarization, Americanization, McDonaldization, creolization, transnationalization, and Balkanization (See Table 7). Admittedly, not all of the alternative paradigms refer to their subject matters as globalization, but they all address global change and/or global order. To scholars who accept this multiple paradigm approach, the definition of globalization is simply, “the process of becoming global”—a process of becoming one world (O’Byrne & Hensby, 2011, p. 2). While this research does not utilize the multiple paradigm approach, this section, beyond presenting the alternative paradigms, is intended to further demonstrate the academic challenges and debates, as well as the theoretical overlap found in globalization studies literature. For a full write up on these alternative paradigms see Appendix B. Appendix B provides a full description of each alternative listed in Table 7.

Table 7: Alternative Paradigms within Globalization Studies Summarized

Model	Image of World Society	Advantages	Disadvantages	Role of Nation-State
Globalization	Orientation to 'one world'	Emergence of egalitarian global consciousness	High degree of abstraction	Eroded
Liberalization	Erosions of barriers	Freedom to trade and of movement	Economic instability	Weakened
Polarization	World divided into rich and poor	Economic prosperity for some	Poverty for many	Sustained
Americanization	American empire sustained through hard and soft power	Peace and stability achieved through benign hegemony	Unequal global power dynamics	Weakened
McDonaldization	Standardization of practices across the world	Modernization brings existential familiarity and harmony	Erosion of local cultures	Sustained but altered
Creolization	Ongoing local transformations through regional flows	Cultural diversity and enrichment	Uncertainty due to loss of tradition	Weakened
Transnationalization	Emergence of level of governance above the nation-state	International law and regulative power	Absence of legitimacy and accountability	Weakened
Balkanization	Division of world into distinct and conflicting cultural blocs	Re-empowerment of cultural identity	Inevitability of conflict	Sustained or weakened

Note: Recreated from *Theorizing Global Studies* (p. 202-206) by D. J. O'Byrne and A. Hensby (2011), New York, NY: Palgrave MacMillan.

SPORT MANAGEMENT

It is hard to underestimate the impacts that globalization processes are having on sport management principles, practices, and scholarship. The contemporary global age has brought nothing but change to the sport industry, ideas regarding sport, and sporting identities. Since the emergence of globalization (or the idea of it), the sport industry has become a trillion-dollar behemoth that continuously searches for new markets and attempts to increase its market share. Sport marketing has been reimagined to pursue the global while maintaining and capitalizing upon the local. Sport organizations have developed a global consciousness, and commonly utilized improved technology to reach fans, broadcast events, become active participants in the sport discourse, and sell merchandise, tickets, life experiences, and spectacle (Smith & Stewart, 2015). The athletes' migration and labor (Maguire, 1999, 2005) as well as the third-world labor of sporting good manufactures have also come under scrutiny as interest in globalization and global markets has increased (Sage, 2000).

In the global age, sport brands have transcended the nation-states, become undeniable global entities, and attracted previously unattainable sponsors. Through globalization processes, sport has facilitated the rise of global celebrity brands (e.g., Michael Jordan, David Beckham, etc.), media brands (e.g., ESPN, Sky Sports, etc.), retail brands (Nike, Reebok, Adidas, etc.), event brands (Olympic Games, World Cup, Tour de France, etc.), club or team brands (Manchester United, New York Yankees, Dallas Cowboys, etc.), and organizational/league brands (MLB, NFL, FIFA, IOC, etc.) (Bouchet, Hillairret, & Bodet, 2013). International media conglomerations, as well as new

media (i.e., social media, Internet-based media), have transformed the way individuals from all over the world consume, interpret, navigate, and interact with sport (Gantz, 2011). Sport tourism, sport policy, sport governance, sport event security (or sport counter-terrorism), sport gambling, and the business of mega-events (including event legacy) have all been reimagined in the light of globalization. Forgive the pun, but globalization is a ‘game-changer’ for sport and the people who manage it. Globalization processes have permeated every sector of the sport industry, and are changing and altering ideas, beliefs, and principles about sport and management, as independent concepts, and, even more so, when they are taken together.

As an applied social science, sport management scholars and practitioners must constantly consider the impacts of globalization processes and attempt to create and implement inventive, yet effective strategies designed for this unprecedented epoch. The linkages and avenues for research between the sport management and globalization studies literatures are palpable. Globalization processes are having tremendous impacts on real world sport management practices and this recognition is starting to be somewhat reflected in the sport management literature. However more work is needed, as the literature should endeavor to reflect these impacts and vigorously address the changes in sport that are related to globalization processes. Sport management scholars have an obligation to observe and conduct research on these changes in hopes of developing new theories and improved best practices.

Edwards and Skinner (2009) state that sport management scholars have been slow to embrace and utilize globalization “as a knowledge set because some of its core

propositions challenge predominant ontological, methodological, and epistemological commitments” (p. 394). However, numerous sport management scholars (e.g., Maguire, 1999; Thibault, 2009; Houlihan, 2007; Robinson, Chelladurai, Bodet, & Downward, 2012; etc.) have identified globalization as crucial to the continued development of sport management and believe it could become a dominant paradigm. Edwards and Skinner (2009) synthesized the globalization studies literature, and present six propositions related to sport management (p. 398-399) (See Table 8).

Table 8: Sport Management and Globalization: Six Propositions

1. Many contemporary issues in sport management cannot be explained as local interactions and must be construed as global studies...at issue is a series of sport problem—e.g., doping in sport, the rise of organized crime in sport, global warming treats to sport, and the spread of infectious disease—which are beyond the regulatory framework of the national sporting organization.
2. Globalization constitutes a structural transformation in world order. As such sport does not exist in a vacuum separate from the social, economic, and environmental context. Questions arise as to how national and international sport organizations respond to this new world order.
3. As a transformation, globalization involves a series of continuities and discontinuities with the past...there is no escaping historiography. Modern conceptions of sport have their foundations in the past.
4. The advent of globalization is fluid. This implies that global sport is an actor in its own right. Transnational sport organizations, national sporting bodies and local sport organizations all influence and are influenced by global issues.
5. Given shifting parameters, sport needs to adjust to evolving global structures. International sport organizations, however, are in varied positions vis-à-vis globalizing structures, and need to reinvent themselves differently according to changing global circumstances.
6. Underpinning such differences is a set of new, or deeper, tensions in world sport. For example the global trend to postmodern individualistic leisure pursuits pose a challenge for traditional sport organizations such as the IAAF and the IOC. The next generation of sport consumers are likely to challenge the hegemony of some Olympic sports with little consumer appeal.

Note: Recreated from *Qualitative Research in Sport Management* (p. 398-399) by A. Edwards and J. Skinner (2009), London, UK: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Conducting sport management research about globalization is not without its challenges. First, given globalization's ambiguity and large breadth, there is no agreed upon methodological approach(es) to investigate globalization-related phenomena (Edwards & Skinner, 2009). Some have examined consumption patterns and consumerism theorizing that they are reliable proxies for individuals' preferences (i.e., acceptance or rejection) regarding globalization, demonstrated the physical manifestation of globalization, and illustrated the role of soft power regarding economic liberalization and gradual hegemony (Khanna, 2011; Anwar, 2007). Others have chosen to engage in the global culture approach (Sklair, 2002) and place culture at the center of McLuhan's (1964) notion of the "global village" (p. 37). As Tomlinson (1999) states, "Globalization lies at the heart of modern culture; cultural practices lie at the heart of globalization" (p. 1).

Second, there is an issue of access when trying to examine transnational sport organizations and corporations. These transnational entities have spent millions of dollars on crafting their images and controlling their brands, so they are hesitant—if not completely resistant—to granting access to scientific, academic investigation. Third, globalization studies and sport management literatures present scholars with the difficult task of narrowing their inquiry without invalidating their findings. Determining what elements of globalization are intertwined with each sport management phenomenon is cumbersome, and on some level subjective—reinforcing the need for rigorous methodically approaches. Fourth, professionals and academics are having difficulty sifting through the sport management and globalization studies literatures, and

determining what is important and applicable. Both literatures are growing at impressive rates, which Zeigler (2007), when advocating for an inventory of sport management research, believes could have drawbacks, stating, “the profession [sport management] simply does not know where it stands in regard to the steadily developing body of knowledge in the many sub-disciplinary and professional aspects of sport management (e.g., sport ethics, sport law, sport economics, sport marketing)” (p. 313). Finally, globalization is still in flux, and its dynamic nature can undermine presuppositions and disrupt longitudinal investigation. The use of historical evidence and data from natural settings are often used as solutions (Edwards & Skinner, 2009), but these approaches can skew forecasting and fail to incorporate complete histories or emerging nuances.

Despite the challenges associated with studying globalization and sport management, sport is becoming increasingly global (Maguire, Jarvie, Mansfield, & Bradley, 2002; Wheeler & Nauright, 2006; Means & Nauright, 2007) as “numerous organizations and structures are involved in the globalization of sport” (Thibault, 2014, p. 324). Maguire et al. (2002) summarizes contemporary sport as, “sport is bound up in a global network of interdependency chains that are marked by uneven power relations” (p. 4). Recognizing sport’s increasingly common position in the global marketplace and global consciousness, a number of scholars have highlighted the importance of globalization and called for its further incorporation into sport management theory and curriculums. Thibault (2009) states, “sport management students should be sensitized to issues of multilingualism, multiculturalism, and multidisciplinary in the delivery of sport in a global context” (p. 2). Danylchuk (2011) agrees stating, “as leaders in the field

of sport management, we must ensure that we teach, research and advocate from an international perspective” (p. 6).

Still other scholars (e.g., Amis & O’Brien, 2005; Slack & Parent, 2006; Mullin, Hardy, & Sutton, 2007, etc.) remind sport management scholars that the core concepts of sport management are “no different the foundational concepts of management and marketing” (Thibault, 2014, p. 314). Recognizing this fact and Slack’s (1996) call for more rigorous research based in theory, and that utilizes more familiar concepts within the management literature, sport management scholars have increasingly used the parent disciplines’ concepts and frameworks to become more specialized (Thibault, 2014). The cornerstones of the generic management literature—organizational theory, marketing, and organizational behavior—all have the capability to enhance the sport management literature. As Chadwick (2009) posits, “sport will never be more than a management outpost, a ghetto in which highly specific work is undertaken by academic and research working outside the mainstream management literature” (p. 202). Therefore, he continues it is necessary to pursue and cultivate a “consensual relationship between the generic [management] and sport management literatures” (p. 202). Chadwick believes the success of this relationship is integral to the improvement of sport management research.

While sport management scholars should use its parent disciplines’ literatures and possess a working understanding of the generic management literature, Chadwick’s conclusion appears to under-appreciate sport’s uniqueness and distinctiveness. Several scholars (e.g., Stewart & Smith, 1999; Smith & Stewart, 2010; Wakefield, 2007; Babiak & Wolfe, 2009, etc.) have noted sport’s unique features, and cited these features as the

rationale for the specific field of sport management. Wakefield (2007) presented a list of 10 features that distinguish sport from other goods and services. Smith and Steward (2010) and Babiak and Wolfe (2009) presented comparable lists, both outlining four distinct attributes and agreeing on three core traits: passion, economics, and transparency. Differing on the fourth trait, Smith and Steward claimed that sport's fixed supply schedule makes it unique, while Babiak and Wolfe asserted that stakeholder management was the fourth distinct characteristic. These distinct characteristics push sport outside the bounds of traditional management approaches and calls for theory and research that specifically investigates them. However, not all scholars (e.g., Slack, 1996, 1998) have agreed. Slack believes that sport is akin to other industries and organizations, and that sport management would benefit from research in the larger field of management. Slack (1998) states, "there is very little if anything about [sport management] literature or our field that could not have been provided by a business school" (p. 21).

Slack's (1996, 1998) dissatisfaction was based on the sport management literature's lack of integration with other disciplines (i.e., management), ambiguous applicability to practitioners, and absence of a strong theoretical base. To address these critiques and make sport management literature more credible and generalizable, sport management scholars have presented an array of theoretical approaches and argued for increase phenomenological scrutiny and methodological rigor. To address Slack's concerns and fulfill sport management scholar's mission of conducting sound research applicable to sport management practitioners, Chalip (2006a) called for two complementary research avenues: the sport-focused and derivative models. The sport-

focused model endeavors to create theory that is grounded in sport, while the derivative model is grounded in the parent discipline's literature and theories. To Chalip (2006a), emerging research should create something new or have relevance to existing theory and contribute to the construction of optimal (or at least better) sport management practices. He goes on, when discussing international sport policy and public funding, to identify five commonly used legitimations for sport: health, salubrious socialization, economic development, community development, and national identity (Chalip, 2006a). Through his presentation, Chalip demonstrated sport's linkages to other sectors of society and how espoused legitimizations are often inconsistent with the outcomes associated with the design and implementation of sport programs, sport events, and sport systems. Chalip is identifying disconnects between the rhetoric (i.e., discourse) surrounding and the realities of the sport industry—he is warning against “the constraining effect of popular wisdom” (p. 10). He believes sport management should examine these inconsistencies and ascertain the differences and similarities between sport and non-sport organizations—this, according to Chalip, will strengthen sport management research and identify its theoretical boundaries.

In essence, Chalip is, among other things, advocating for a critical approach to sport management. Other scholars (e.g., Frisby, 2005; Zeigler, 2007) have also called on sport management scholars to take a critical approach and focus on the negative aspects of sport: greed, commodification, corruption, male chauvinism, sexism, bribery, exclusion, using athletes as commodities, drugs, environmental degradation, etc. Critical approaches demand questioning accepted principles and advocating for social change. To

do so, it is necessary to investigate who is saying what and who stands to gain for those statements. Critical approaches confront injustices and, as Frisby (2005) states, are “a very useful lens for understanding and reflecting on organizational practices and how we teach, research, and theorize about sport management” (p. 2). It is within this critical vein that this research study was conducted.

The remainder of this section is divided into three sections. First, the discipline of sport management as an agent and object of globalization is discussed. Next, a brief presentation of the IOC is offered. This presentation positions the IOC as the preeminent transnational, supraterritorial sport organization that has situated itself as an influential globalization discourse agent. The section concludes with a brief review of several specific globalization-related issues that are applicable to the Olympic Games and have received significant attention in sport management literature: sport labor, sport tourism, sport governance, and sport marketing.

The Globalization of Sport Management

Sport management, like sport (but on a less intense scale), is a product and source of globalization (Eitzen, 2008). The sport management discipline, since its humble beginnings in 1966 has expanded into a global discipline with more than 400 institutions of higher education offering sport management programs worldwide (Thibault, 2014). In addition to increased programs, academic and professional publications diffusing sport management research and information have proliferated throughout the world. Throughout its evolution, many sub-disciplines—and their corresponding publications—

of sport management have emerged (e.g., sport economics, sport finance, sport marketing, etc.). Now, remarkably, six continental sport management associations (See Table 9) have been created with the African Sport Management Association, created in 2010, being the latest. In 2012 the World Association for Sport Management was formed, and its inaugural world conference was held in October of 2014. This is strong evidence that unmistakably demonstrates that sport management—as a discipline—is also a product and source of globalization processes.

Table 9: Academic Sport Management Associations

Academic Association	Year Created
North American Society for Sport Management	1985
European Association for Sport Management	1993
Sport Management Association of Australia and New Zealand	1995
Asian Association for Sport Management	2002
Latin American Association for Sport Management	2009
African Sport Management Association	2010
World Association for Sport Management	2012

It is clear that sport management is being recognized as a discipline with worldwide appeal and implications. Through the establishment of professional associations, an international outlook, and correctly recognizing sport as an object and agent of globalization, sport management can be described as an academic discipline of the global age. Sport management's development cannot be divorced from the recognition and maturation of globalization. This is especially true as globalization's characteristics are altering the purview of sport business and sport managers' responsibilities and, in turn, simultaneously forcing the sport management literature to

incorporate globalization processes while maintaining applicability to practitioners. Put differently, sport management literature's applied utility would be minimal if current best practices did not account for the changes associated with globalization processes.

It is believed that this international perspective and recognition of globalization is the appropriate way forward for sport management. However, potential drawbacks and issues need to be identified and actively avoided. As Thiabult (2014) states, "given the importance of globalization in all facets of society, sport management scholars and practitioners must be exposed not only to the advantages of globalization but also to its challenges" (p. 324). While Thiabult's quote is directly commenting upon challenges directly associated with the real-world manifestations of globalization, she is, perhaps unknowingly, alluding to the challenges associated with sport management's, as a discipline, approach to and conceptualization of globalization. Six distinct challenges that sport management scholars must actively acknowledge and avoid when engaging globalization-related sport phenomenon are outlined in the following paragraphs.

The first significant challenge is the potential for academic-supported isomorphism, and advertising/advocating best practices as unwavering, concrete solutions. Sport management scholars should avoid organizational mimicking and "one-size fits all" solutions. Individual sport organizations need to understand their own marketplaces and how they are positioned within the local and global. While not precluding borrowing or seeking inspiration, wholesale isomorphism will irrevocably harm organizations and, perhaps more importantly, render few with any kind of sustainable competitive advantage. The second challenge is the potential to overlook an

individual sport organization's uniqueness. Organizations' idiosyncratic features remain crucially important to their individual success and cannot be ignored. Not all sport organizations are pursuing the exact same goals, and understanding how individual features interplay with/dictate an organization's strategy and practice is imperative. This challenge is related to the first (i.e., isomorphism), as the failure to recognize distinctive organizational traits will result in suboptimal strategies that do not capture the organization's unique capabilities. This, in effect, creates organizational inefficiency and eventual obsolescence.

A third challenge is industry/academic confusion resulting from misleading or unknown language. International sport management scholars need to develop a 'common tongue', so that conceptual and definitional confusion does not prevent contributions and cooperation. As shown in the first part of this literature review, definitional and rhetorical confusion are major drawbacks to the globalization literature, and sport management scholars should actively endeavor to avoid this pitfall. Calling for term clarification or advocating for new language should only be pursued when, and only when, these endeavors add substantive material that further the ongoing conversation. Definitional and language arguments often do little to advance theoretical frameworks, and often even less to advance practical applications. The impetus behind these types of scholarly works is rarely anything more than "academic back-patting", and can serve to further widen the chasms between academics and practitioners. Applied social scientists (i.e., sport managers) should be constantly looking for ways to bridge these lacunae, and a common language is a necessary step.

Fourthly, already established academic and professional associations must not be overbearing. Newly established geographic-based academic associations' goals and objectives vary. Therefore, while assisting with their growth, more-established associations need to allow younger ones to develop organically and without significance interference. Too much interference can stunt growth, and the sport management discipline will loss or weaken these new associations' potential contributions.

The fifth challenge centers on the need to avoid the academic trend of specialization and adoption of restrictive taxonomies. A broad, encompassing conceptualization of sport management that incorporates the international and diverse nature of sport organizations needs to be adopted. Restricted views of sport organizations can limit scholars' conceptualization of the sport industry, and render conclusions and findings less generalizable and applicable. Broad taxonomies allow for the inclusion of tangential, but relevant organizations, and encourage researchers to take bold, critical approaches and question espoused messages and images. Finally, sport management scholars, even while conducting domestic-based research, should continue to develop and incorporate a global consciousness. Global considerations are necessary when developing applicable theory and practice, and failing to incorporate them will render an international outlook pointless. Sport management will continue to evolve alongside, and perhaps underneath, globalization, and, thus from a sport management perspective, the globalization questions of how, why, and to what end are crucial to sport management's continued maturation.

International/Global Sport Organizations

Of central concern to sport management scholars who study globalization is the history, role, and power of international, transnational, and/or supraterritorial sport organizations—sometimes referred to as global sport organizations (Forester & Pope, 2004; Gratton, Liu, Ramchandani, & Wilson, 2012). These organizations are numerous and have varying objectives and purviews. They include organizations that represent individuals sports (e.g., International Cricket Council, International Netball Federation, Fédération Internationale de Natation, etc.), groups of sports and international federations (e.g. Association of Summer Olympic International Federations, Association of Winter Olympic International Federations, etc.), continental games and interests (e.g., Pan American Sports Organization, Olympic Council of Asia, etc.), regional games and interests (e.g., International Committee for the Mediterranean Games, Commonwealth Games Federation, etc.), global games and interests (e.g., IOC, FIFA, International World Games Association, etc.), societal groups and their inclusion in sport (e.g., International Paralympic Committee, International Military Sports Council, Federation of Gay Games, etc.), privately owned leagues (e.g., Major League Baseball, National Basketball Association, Formula One, Barclays/English Premier League, etc.), regulatory bodies (e.g., World Anti-Doping Agency, Court of Arbitration of Sports, etc.), commercial interests (e.g., Sport & Fitness Industry Association, World Federation of the Sporting Goods Industry, etc.), journalistic interests (e.g., International Sport Press Association, Sport Journalists' Association, etc.), sports' other functions (e.g., United Nations Office on Sport for Development and Peace, International Platform on Sport & Development,

U.S. Department of State's SportsUnited Program, etc.), and other miscellaneous sport related interests (e.g., environmental [e.g., Natural Resource Defense Council], college-level sport [e.g., National Collegiate Athletic Association], gambling [e.g., American Gaming Association, Financial Crimes Enforcement Network, etc.], academia [e.g., International Society of Olympic Historians, World Association of Sport management, etc.], etc.

As the above list makes clear, there are a multitude of international—global—sport organizations (i.e., stakeholders) related to the globalization of sport. This list could be expanded depending on how broadly “global sport organizations” are defined. Gratton et al. (2012) defined global sport organizations as “international NGOs [non-governmental organizations] that govern sports and/or global sporting events” (p. 19). Forster and Pope (2004) identified three categories of global sport organizations: international governing bodies of sport (a.k.a. International Federations [e.g., FIFA, IAAF, etc.]), event-orientated organizations that regularly administer multi-sport games and often have a purpose other than sport (e.g., IOC, Gay Games Federation, etc.), and function-orientated organizations (e.g., WADA, CSA, etc.).

Encased in these categories' descriptions is the notion of sport governance, in particular global sport governance. Keohane and Nye (2000) define global governance as, “the process and institutions, both formal and informal, that guide and restrain the collective activities of a group” (p. 12) at varying levels. According to Gratton et al. (2012), the quest and strengthening of global governance—in all societal sectors, not just sports—is a byproduct of globalization processes and the development of a global

consciousness that “requires international coordination and cooperation across borders” (p. 20). Palmer (2013) claims that global sport governance is made up of a network of interconnected organizations that engage in activities that Marjoribanks and Farquharson (2012) characterize as “formal and informal politics” (p. 123). Global sport governance is intimately related to power and politics, and powerful global sport organizations are political organizations that are engaged with various commercial and social issues. Marjoribanks and Farquharson (2012) sum up global sport governance, stating:

Transnational sports organizations such as FIFA and the IOC provide structures for global sporting contests while promoting a range of activities related to the sports they represent. As with the other levels of sport governance, global sport governance is political, with individual nations competing within the structures of these organizations for positions that benefit their constituents (p. 125).

However, not all organizations completely fit into one of Forster and Pope’s (2004) three categories, as international sport organizations are often concerned with more than one issue associated with the globalization of sport. This is not surprising given, as previously mentioned, the intertwined and interrelated nature of globalization processes. International sport organizations need to constantly monitor their internal capacities and external environments to determine how globalization processes and their complexities are impeding and facilitating their goals and affecting their strategic management and future decision-making. As Palmer (2013) reminds:

A fairly crude distinction between globalization as being a product of the spread of capitalism or the spread of cultural relationships and exchange...is far too blunt. Globalization is, in fact, a far more complex process whereby the organization of the global economy has far-reaching social consequences, and the market cannot be separated from the cultural. (p. 14-15)

Stakeholders' agendas are influencing the globalization of sport. These agendas and, by extension, international sport organizations' functions are significantly diverse as their foci are different. Marjoribanks and Farquharson (2012), when discussing global sport governing bodies, identified three functions: the organization of international sporting events and mega-events; the marketing of the sports; and the promotion of the organization's sporting ethos. However, sport organizations' functions could also include regulating sport, developing environmental best practices for all levels of sport, helping create an inclusive sport-scape, transplanting sport, developing elite athletes, improving sport technology and equipment, researching medical issues within sport, and/or commercializing sport. In addition to differing functions and agendas, these organizations have their own cultures, logos/symbols, goals, spheres of influence, and motivations that do not always facilitate cooperation or collaboration. These opportunities for cooperation and resistance create prime conditions for alliance building, informal politics, *quid pro quo* agreements, and corruption.

It is critical for sport management scholars to identify what organizations are contributing to the globalization of sport, pinpoint what organizations are working together (and against each other), map industry networks, determine how globalization processes are impacting the globalization of sport, and remember that many of these organizations are not explicitly concerned with ensuring that sport—in any form—has an overall positive societal impact, as they are primarily concerned with increasing their power and profits. It is necessary to critically question both positive and adversarial relationships among sporting entities and their roles within the globalization of sport.

International sport organizations within the global economic marketplace and ideological space, their international networks, organization behavior, and evolution are ideal sport management research topics that require additional academic attention.

The International Olympic Committee and Olympism

As demonstrated above, a surfeit of international sport organizations are vying for position and power within the global sport landscape. However, two international organizations, the IOC and FIFA, are often considered to be the most powerful, recognizable, and controversial. This section focuses solely on the IOC as it is integral to this research, but FIFA, especially in light of its 2015 corruption scandal, deserves additional critical examination.

The IOC has been described as both a force for good and evil. Critics of the IOC point to its political power and corporate ties, especially after the 1984 Los Angeles Games, and its impact on international relations, sport governance, and international sport policy. Supporters claim that the IOC is a force for world peace that preaches the virtuous social philosophy of Olympism (Girginov & Parry, 2005). Regardless of an individual's opinion, the IOC should be thought of as an extremely wealthy and politically powerful supranational organization that uses its monopolistic control over the Olympic Games to advance its agenda (and allies' agendas) and secure its political and economic position within global power structures.

The IOC is a significant international economic and political entity that is intimately tied to commercial interests and social issues. As Gratton et al. state, "their

original *raison d'être* may have been sport, but broader societal objectives were incorporated" (p. 21). Tomlinson (2005) paints a more critical picture stating that the IOC, and by extension the Olympic Games, are no longer a reflection of society, but a reflection of the IOC's corporate relationships and negotiated agendas that are creating and legitimizing "new cultural formations" (p. 48-49). Tomlinson (2005) states that the Olympic Games operate "as a focus for the articulation of serious national and global political dynamics, and as a giant billboard for the elite crop of multi-national corporations that are the preferred sponsorship partners of the International Olympic Committee" (p. 49). He continues, stating "it is not so much about what is on the agenda of Olympic competition and activity programmes. It is more about the global profiling of places and the worldwide expansion of markets" (p. 61).

The literature is littered with conflicting characterizations of the IOC, but most sport management, sport history, and Olympic scholars agree that the IOC (and its position within the globalization of sport) calls for critical academic investigations that "penetrate far beyond the surface and rhetoric of international sport" and "go beyond secondary sources, institutionally generated accounts and outright propaganda (Jennings, 1994 cited in Sugden & Tomlinson, 1999, p. 389). The remainder of this section discusses the Olympic Movement with the IOC as the central actor and Olympism, the social philosophy of the Olympic Movement.

The Olympic Movement

The Olympic Movement is an amorphous concept that has continually evolved since the IOC was created in 1894 under the direction of Pierre de Coubertin. Girginov

and Parry (2005) describe the modern Olympic Movement as a 20th Century phenomena that is “a set of ideas, structures, and competitions” (p. ix). They continue, claiming the Olympic Movement’s—including the Games themselves—purpose “is to further the development of sport and to use sport to promote both personal and cultural change” (p. ix). The key institution—i.e., “supreme authority” (IOC, 2014, p. 15)—of the Olympic Movement is the IOC. The Olympic Charter states that the Olympic Movement’s three main constituents are the IOC, the International Sports Federations (IFs) and the National Olympic Committees (NOCs). Organizing Committees for the Olympic Games (OCOGs), national associations, clubs, and all people affiliated with the IFs and NOCs are also associated constituents. All associated organizations and sponsors are expected to operate under the ideals and principles of Olympism.

The Olympic Movement has undergone tremendous changes since its creation. These historical changes were inevitable if the various organizations in the Olympic Movement wanted to stay relevant and continue to gain power and wealth. Many of the changes have been positive (e.g., inclusion of women and minorities, banning discrimination of all kinds, creation of regulatory bodies, etc.), but the motivations behind them and future changes are crucially important as they expose the IOC’s agenda and question whether Olympism remains the movement’s inspirational force. Girginov and Parry (2005) identified five historical turning points that have helped transform the Olympic Movement into its present iteration: 1) transforming the Games from a religious to a secular event; 2) shedding its Western European origins and becoming a worldwide project—i.e., moving from a 13 nation-state Games in 1894 to 204 nation-state event in

2012; 3) abandoning and reconceptualizing key tenets—e.g., amateurism and women’s participation; 4) the Eleventh Olympic Congress in 1981 that approved the commercialization of the Olympics; and 5) moving towards a value-driven and athlete-centered movement (p. xii).

Similarly, Tomlinson (2005) identified three main chronological phases in the economic development of the Olympic Games, and maintained that these phases have helped characterize the Olympic Movement. Tomlinson’s (2005) phases are: 1) 1896-1928: “a grand socio-political project with a modest economic profile”; 2) 1929-1984: “a markedly political intensification of the event at the heart of international political development”; and 3) 1985-onward: “fueled by a global reach of capital...[that] has sought to penetrate new international markets and reimage cities and regions in the international economy of a global culture” (p. 60).

In the 10 years since the publication of these lists, Tomlinson’s third phase has clearly emerged, as the movement has embraced all of globalization’s dimensions, and in doing so become a shepherd for and authority of the globalization of sport. This phase is the focus of this research. The movement’s evolution since the Eleventh Olympic Congress’ decision to become more commercialized in 1981 has consistently occurred under the veil and rhetoric of globalization and neoliberalism.

In essence, the Olympic Movement, with the IOC at its core, has become an exemplar of globalization. To illustrate, first, the movement is not based in any geographical area—it is not the property or under the purview of any one nation-state. Second, it attempts to deploy the principles of Olympism as key components to the

formation of a global consciousness. Third, the Olympic Games shrink time and space. Geographical barriers are no longer impediments to an Olympic *communitas* or salubrious socialization. It uses technological advancements and lucrative media deals to bring the Olympic Games to the world—people throughout the world watch and comment on events and athletes in real time while being exposed to other cultures and “common senses”. Fourth, it participates in the global economy, and the IOC’s decisions can have tremendous effects on individuals’ economic and social realities as well as on nation-states’ domestic policies. Fifth, the IOC cultivates a globally recognized brand in the global marketplace and goes to great lengths to defend it from infringement. Sixth, it uses its power, international prestige, and supraterritorial status to coerce nation-states to adopt policies—that may or may not be positive and/or related to sport—that they have historically resisted. Finally, it is entrenched in a number of transnational organizational networks that operate above the nation-state. For example, the IOC partners with UNESCO, the Red Cross, and other international organizations to promote peace, education, and economic development—social issues that would seem to be beyond the initial purview of sport. The IOC does all this while touting the positive outcomes associated with globalization, and presenting themselves as the authority in international sport, sport governance, sport policy, and the globalization of sport. As the Olympic Charter states:

Under the supreme authority and leadership of the International Olympic Committee, the Olympic Movement encompasses organisations, athletes and other persons who agree to be guided by the Olympic Charter. The goal of the Olympic Movement is to contribute to building a peaceful and

better world by educating youth through sport practised in accordance with Olympism and its values. (p. 15)

Deconstructing the above quotation highlights a number of concerns. The IOC—a non-democratic committee—has no equal when it comes to the Olympic Movement. Its members decide what does and does not qualify as Olympism, and what actions they should take. “Supreme authority” does not render ideas of transparency, accountability, cooperation, and/or cosmopolitanism, but more of an exclusive, reclusive, and totalitarian group that will only accept others if they agree to pay their dues or play by their rules. This means that the IOC along with its governmental, non-governmental, organizational, corporate, media, and commercial partners decide/negotiate what constitutes “Olympism and its values” and, among other things, dictate how to build a better world and educate youth through sport. These intimate relationships along with numerous scandals involving the IOC have created opponents, and left some to wonder whether greed and political power are the real core values of Olympism (Lenskj, 2000, 2008, 2012).

The Olympic Movement’s historical evolution, commercialization, and increased prestige and wealth have produced a variety of tensions, and as the global age continues to advance, more tensions are expected. Girginov and Parry (2005) highlighted six key debates and tensions that persist within the Olympic Movement: 1) amateur and commercial ethos; 2) mass participation and sporting excellence; 3) friendship and rivalry; 4) the pursuit of peace and nationalism; 5) Olympism as a social movement and the Olympic Games as spectacle; and 6) actions required to protect a commercial property and actions needed to nurture a global social movement (p. x). A seventh tension

seems to be public relations and veracity—meaning that the IOC is critical of the host nations’ preparations for the Games and often downplays negative issues (e.g., displacement, white elephant stadiums, construction deaths, social unrest/protest, corruption, crime, terrorism, etc.) that might reflect poorly on the IOC, the Olympic Movement, or the Games. The IOC attributes everything positive about the games to the Movement, the IOC, and Olympism, while blaming individuals, national and local governments, and deviance for anything negative. As a result of this brand management, many have questioned the IOC’s motivations and actions (e.g., Tomlinson, 2005; Slack, 2004; Forster & Pope, 2004; Marjoribanks & Farquharson, 2012, etc.).

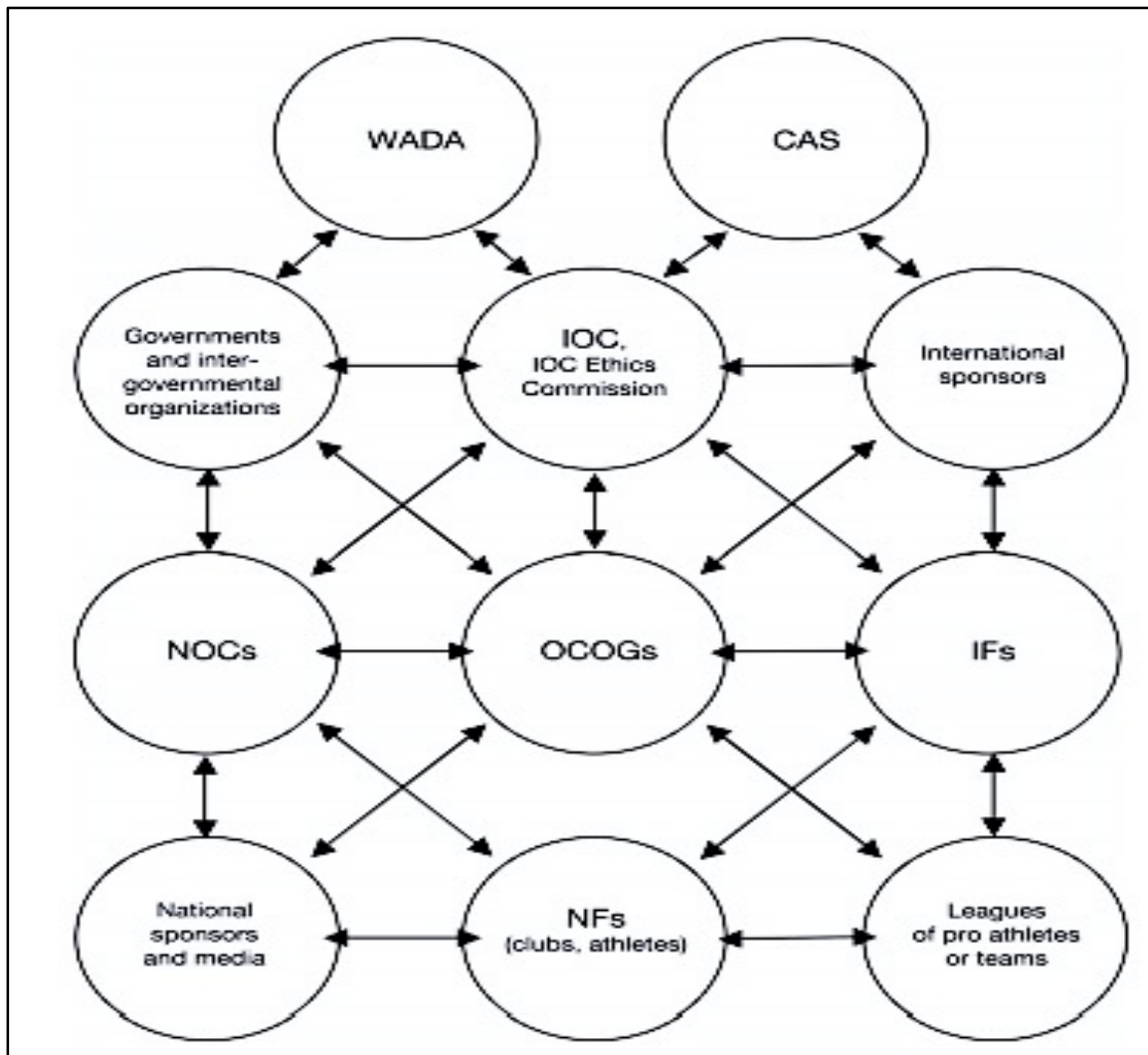
While the changes and tensions within the Olympic Movement will attract ongoing debate and disagreement, the increased complexity regarding the organizational structure and the IOC’s role within the globalized world cannot be questioned. The IOC has gone from 10 original members—all from the upper echelon of European society—to 115 members that represent all parts of the world. Its administration staff has increased from 12 in 1968 to more than 400 in 2007—indicating the Olympic Movement’s and IOC’s substantial growth over the last 40-plus years (Chappelet & Kübler-Mabbott, 2008). Charting the maturation of what Chappelet and Kübler-Mabbott refer to as the Olympic system, the “classical” Olympic system added new actors in the last 30 years creating the “extended” Olympic system. This system was expanded further with the introduction of regulators—i.e., Court for the Arbitration of Sport (CAS) in 1984, World Anti-Doping Agency in 1999, and IOC Ethics Commission in 1999 (See Figure 3). The classical system was hierarchical and contained five actors: IOC, NOCs, OCOGs, IFs,

and NFs. In this system, the NFs interact with the IFs and NOCs, while the NOCs, OCOGs, and IFs report to and interact with the IOC. NOCs and IFs do not interact.

The extended system adds four more actors: national sponsors and media, leagues of professional athletes or teams, governments and inter-governmental organizations, and international sponsors. The latter two have direct contact with the IOC. The regulated Olympic system (See Figure 3) adds three more actors: CAS, WADA, and the IOC Ethics Commission. In this system, the IOC is no longer impervious, as WADA and CAS can regulate and rule upon the IOC's activities and decisions. The IOC Ethics Commission cannot be considered a significant actor here, because it is an IOC commission and therefore not independent. WADA and CAS, while technically independent, are closely tied to the IOC for their funding, but can and do issue rulings against the IOC's interests.

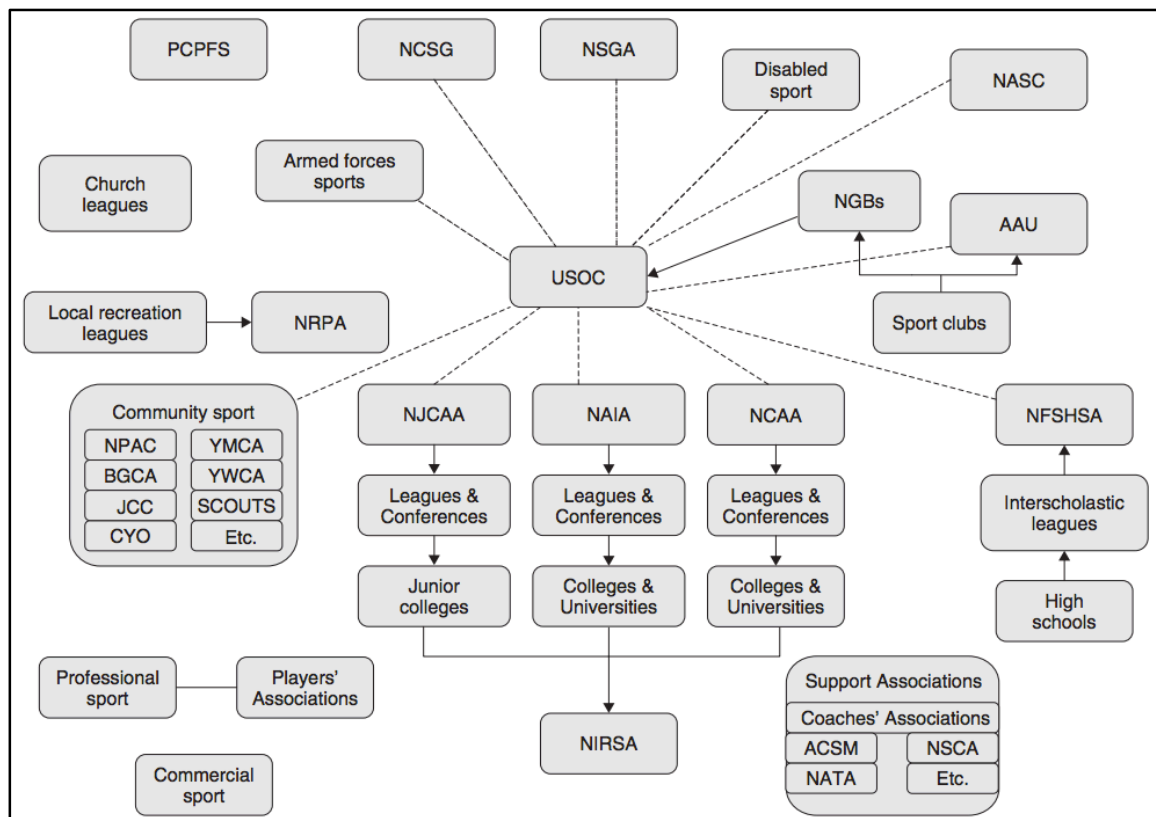
Figure 3 helps illustrate the evolving and increasingly complex nature of the Olympic Movement. This complexity is further illustrated through Figure 4, as it presents the key institutions in the United States's sport development system with the U.S. Olympic Committee as the central actor. Given that there are currently 204 NOCs, all with some type of national network that varies by nation-states (c.f., Houlihan & Green, 2008), it is easy to comprehend the sport industry's complexity and crowded marketplace. As globalization processes make international markets and organizations more accessible, it is safe to conclude that the Olympic Movement will continue to add actors and that existing actors will assume new roles and authorities.

Figure 3: The Regulated Olympic System



Note: Reprinted from *The International Olympic Committee and the Olympic System: The Governance of World Sport* (p. 18) by J-L. Chappelet and B. Kübler-Mabbott (2008), London, UK: Routledge.

Figure 4: Key Organizations in American Sport Development



Note: Reprinted from United States by E. Sparvero, L. Chalip, and B. C. Green (2008). In B. Houlihan and M. Green (Eds.), *Comparative Elite Sport Development: Systems, structures and public policy* (p. 252), Oxford, UK: Elsevier, Ltd.

Note 2: Each acronym is spelled out in Appendix C.

The Olympic Movement is not in its final iteration. Its continued evolution will not only add or eliminate stakeholders, but also increase its complexities. These complexities will be rooted in political, social, economic, and ecological processes and will not only impact the movement's structure, but also its purview, actions, and ideals—i.e., its powers and influence. Monitoring and evaluating the complexities and the interactions among the various actors are critical to the advancement of sport management-globalization studies theory and research, especially as they apply to

powerful supraterritorial sport organization (e.g., IOC and FIFA). The next section discusses Olympism, the social philosophy that undergirds—or that is supposed to undergird—the entire Olympic Movement.

Olympism

Olympism is a philosophy of life, exalting and combining in a balanced whole the qualities of body, will and mind. Blending sport with culture and education, Olympism seeks to create a way of life based on the joy of effort, the educational value of good example, social responsibility and respect for universal fundamental ethical principles.

The goal of Olympism is to place sport at the service of the harmonious development of humankind, with a view to promoting a peaceful society concerned with the preservation of human dignity. (IOC, p. 11)

The IOC via the Olympic Charter lays out seven fundamental principles of Olympism, the first two are quoted above (See Appendix D for the complete list). These principles are Olympism's foundations and are intended to serve as the operational values that guide the Olympic Movement's every action and decision. Olympism—Coubertin's brainchild—is a universal philosophy that is intended to apply (although not originally) to everyone and transcend nationality, race, gender, sexual orientation, social class, religion, and ideology. Olympism has four distinct foci (Girginov & Parry, 2005). It focuses on: 1) everyone, not just elite athletes; 2) an individual's entire life, not just a short period; 3) the values of participation and cooperation, not just competing and winning; and 4) sport as “a formative and developmental influence contributing to desirable characteristics of individual personality and social life” (p. 2), not just as an activity.

The Olympic Movement's main purpose is to assist in the worldwide spread and development of Olympism. In other words, the Games are essentially the financial and propaganda vehicles for the spread of Olympism, and, therefore, Olympic sport has never been 'for sport's sake' and has always been envisioned as a tactic to spread the social philosophy of Olympism. This is a prime and early example of recognizing and utilizing sport's other functions. Advancing Olympism has been the Olympic Games' (and IOC's) purpose since their reestablishment in the late 1890s. As Coubetin said in 1896:

Healthy democracy, wise and peaceful internationalism, will penetrate the new stadium and preserve within it the cult of honour and disinterestedness which will enable athletics to help in the tasks of moral education and social peace as well as of muscular development. (p. 9)

As noble and pure as Olympism and its espoused ideals are on paper, scholars (e.g., Hoberman, 1986; Lenskj, 2000, 2008, 2012; Shaw, 2008; Kohe, 2010, etc.) and mainstream journalists have questioned whether they are any more than window dressing and/or effective public relations (Bernays, 1929, 1945, 1947). Citing Olympic scandals involving drug use, bribery, age manipulation, racism, homophobia, sexism, violence, sexual assault, collusion, manipulating equipment, blatant cheating, corporate influence, gambling, environmental degradation, threats to freedom of press, housing displacement, and many other issues, critics exclaim that Olympism is a farce—or, at best, far from being a guiding social philosophy. Critics maintain that Olympism has been used as a justification for the Olympic Movement to go far beyond sport, and interfere with national and regional politics, gain exorbitant wealth, and establish the 'moral order' of sport. Further, and critical for this research, Olympism has been used to cement the IOC's

position as the *supreme authority* regarding the globalization of sport. Lenskj (2000, 2008)—an ardent critic of the Olympic Games, the IOC, and Olympism—has revealed systematic and consistent inequities and mistreatment of local populations, especially poor and Indigenous groups. Lenskj (2012), when comparing five bid and host cities, stated:

A clear pattern emerges from these five cities: local politicians, developers, and corporate leaders joining forces with Olympic supporters to use the Olympic catalyst to initiate major urban redevelopment and infrastructure projects, largely at taxpayers' expense. The poorest neighborhoods are seen as prime targets for these enterprises, and the subsequent displacement of low-income residents and destruction of long-standing working-class communities prompts little concern on the part of those with more power and privilege. (p. 384)

It is impossible to completely divorce Olympism from the Olympic Movement; they are as intertwined as discourse and context. However, both—in isolation and holistically—deserve continued academic attention, as they are integral actors within the globalization of sport and global sport issues. Scholars and journalists need to demand greater degrees of accountability, transparency, and democracy within the Olympic Movement, especially as the price tag and global appeal continues to increase. For instance, the 2008 Summer Olympics in Beijing and 2014 Winter Games in Sochi cost more than \$40 and \$51 billion respectively, and were watched by five and three billion people from the around the world. This global media reach could be manipulated in any number of ways, and drive costs up even further. In fact, the huge costs have already caused some countries to question whether the Olympics are an economically sound

investment and if their espoused benefits can be actually realized. These are significant issues that have clear implications for the globalization of sport.

If the Olympic Movement—guided by Olympism—is the main authority of the globalization of sport, then it demands critical assessments that go beyond the IOC’s generated and approved public relations material and reports. Borrowing from Frisby (2005), scholars need to explore and expose “the good, the bad, and the ugly” aspects of the Olympic Movement and Olympism. It is important to remember that purporting to be doing the right thing does not actually mean that it is being done.

Sport Management and Globalization

Global sport’s economic, cultural, and social impacts cannot be understated, nor can its ripeness for corruption and/or capacity to perpetuate harm and social maladies. As Maguire and Falcous (2011) state, “global sport...is a highly contested, structured process that is contoured by power dynamics that enable and constrain and provide both opportunities for social advancement and the reinforcement of exploitation and inequality” (p. 5). As evident from this quote and emphasized throughout this study, globalization is a multi-dimensional concept with relevance to a copious number of sport management and sport-related topics. While it is beyond the scope of this paper to review and synthesize every sport management-globalization studies issue that has received—or should receive—academic attention, it would be lacking not to highlight several important topics and their intersections with globalization processes. This section features five distinct subjects that showcase these intersections as it presents sport labor, sport

tourism, sport governance, and sport marketing. These topics were selected because of their relevance to globalization, the IOC, and the Olympic Games. These subsections are intended to highlight previous literature and identify future research opportunities (when appropriate). It is hoped that this will further showcase the rich potential for future research, how sport is changing in and responding to the global age, conceivable avenues to expand and improve the globalization of sport literature, and the need for sport management and globalization studies scholars to adopt a generalist academic position and avoid the pitfalls associated with academic specialization.

Sport Labor

When approached from a broad perspective, sport labor can refer to a wide variety of individuals within the global sport industry. Sport management scholars who discuss globalization have been primarily concerned with three distinct types of sport labor: 1) athletes as a transnational labor source or sport labor migration; 2) management of the labor, including volunteers, within sport organizations; and 3) the typically impoverished, developing-world workers that manufacture sporting goods and products. However, individuals who work in sport governance, sport policy, and/or international sport non-governmental organizations are often absent from these discussions and typically are examined under different monikers—indicating the degree of topical specialization within the sport management literature. These divisions within the discussions of sport labor can obfuscate the development of an accurate picture of the sport labor market and skew economic perspectives and evaluations. While these forms of sport labor are

examined elsewhere in the literature, it is rarely done under considerations of labor, labor relations, or in light of the dynamic international labor market. This constitutes a noteworthy gap in the literature, and is something that future sport management research should attempt to examine and rectify.

Of the three ways in which sport management scholars typically discuss sport labor, sport labor migration and athletes as a transnational labor force has received the most attention. In 2004, Maguire assessing his already more than 10 years of scholarship examining sport labor migration (Maguire & Bale, 1994) stated that sport labor migration research is still in its “relative infancy” when compared to many other areas in the sport-centered academia—both at a conceptual level and with regard to empirical inquiry. Nevertheless, Maguire and Falcous (2011) declared that sport labor migration research has developed along seven distinct lines:

First, which sports are most involved, why have they been so affected and what structural or cultural changes have thus occurred in those sports and in the societies in which they are located?; second, what are the patterns of global movement and how and why have they developed in this manner?; third, what has been the impact of and on fans in their own migration as ‘tourists’ or as part of a diaspora, and their perception of the sports they consume?; fourth, what has been the impact on ‘host’ and ‘donor’ countries more broadly?; fifth, why do ‘professional’ athletes become labour migrants, how is this process contoured and shaped and what do they experience along their journey?; sixth, in what ways does such migration reflect the movement of highly skilled workers more generally?; and seventh, what implications are there for sport policy and for the domestic and foreign policies of nation-states more broadly? (p. 1)

Such a state of development suggests that the migration of sport labor is not the purview of any one social science discipline, as it has interest to sport managers, economists, geographers, political scientists, historians, sociologists, and many other

academic disciplines. Scholars utilize their unique disciplinary expertise, and this multidisciplinary approach is developing an informed and robust discourse surrounding sport labor and sport labor migration. Analyzed from a globalization lens, these themes underlie the persistent question of whether global sport and global sport labor migration are contributing to a globalized, cosmopolitan appreciation of other peoples and cultures or are propelling “powerful decivilizing counter thrust in which groups...have reacted aggressively to the encroachment of foreign people, values and cultures” (Maguire & Falcous, p. 2).

Proponents of the former stance would point out the generally accepted globalization characteristics of time-space compression, elimination of traditional geographical barriers, increased interdependency, multidirectionality, multicausality, and enhanced local and global networks (Castells, 2000) as current contributing factors to and features of global sport labor. These features make the various facets of global sport labor prime research interests for sport management scholars. These proponents would also highlight global sport brands, global sport marketing, the sport media complex, and global sport mega-events as supporting evidence of a globalized cosmopolitan.

However, other scholars (e.g., Guest, 2009; Robertson, 1994) have highlighted the “anti-globalization movement” and locals’ different reactions to and interpretations of globalization processes. Guest (2009) indicated that in reaction to globalization, local community organizations have been reinvigorated and/or newly established in attempts to claim sporting autonomy and instill local, community values into their programs. However, sport labor literature rarely investigates local sport labor in reaction/relation to

globalization and/or whether sport labor migrations are creating a ‘boomerang effect’ that brings globalized athletes’ status, wealth, and expertise back to their countries of origin. Sport labor migration research would benefit from looking at the long-term and short-term effects of both sport development and sport for development. Consistent with most phenomena associated with globalization, sport labor migration research—depending on context—will reveal some uniformities and some striking differences—the task is delineating the universals from the particulars. Recognizing the dichotomies associated with sport labor and the need to investigate both short- and long-term ramifications requires an encompassing, generalist approach that can account for and appreciate the changing transnational labor and financial markets, as well as the broader cultural, political, social, and geographic environment. This approach is needed to further determine sport labor’s relevance to Steger’s (2010) political, economic, cultural, and ecological dimensions of globalization.

Sport Tourism

Compression of time and space, enhanced information- and transportation-based technologies, and unevenness/inequality—features of globalization—are all related to sport tourism. Globalization processes have helped transform sport tourism into a multi-billion dollar industry that has ties to everything from neighboring cities’ little league baseball tournaments to academic and professional tourism conferences to nature expeditions to tourism associated with huge mega-events like the Olympic Games. Sport tourism scholars—like sport management and globalization studies scholars—clearly

point out that sport tourism is more than the sum of its parts, claiming it is not a tourism niche market or simply a subset of sport management, but rather a phenomenon unto itself. Regardless of whether sport tourism fits under the sport management umbrella is somewhat moot as sport tourism, even as a phenomenon unto itself, is facing significant changes related to globalization processes.

Sport tourism is typically defined as undertaking travel to actively (i.e., take part) or passively (i.e., spectate) engage with a sport or sporting event. Standeven and De Koop (1999) define sport tourism as “all forms of active and passive involvement in sporting activity, participated in casually or in an organised way for non-commercial or business/commercial reasons, that necessitate travel away from home and work locality” (p. 12). Expanding on this idea, Weed and Bull (2004) conceptualize sport tourism as “arising from the unique interaction of activity, people, and place” (p. 37), and Weed (2008) goes on to define sport tourism as “a social, economic and cultural phenomenon arising from the unique interaction of activity, people, and place” (p. 7).

These conceptualizations have led to three generally recognized types of sport tourism: active, nostalgia, and sport-event (Gibson & Fairley, 2011; Gibson, 1998; Ross, 2001). Gibson (1998) incorporates these three types into her sport tourism definition, stating that it is “leisure-based travel that takes individuals temporarily outside of their home communities to participate in physical activities, to watch physical activities, or to venerate attractions associated with physical activities” (p. 49). Active sport tourism is traveling to actively participate in a sport or physical activity. This includes competing in marathons, playing in regional or national tournaments, and/or going to natural preserves

to hike, bike, and/or swim. Hall (1992) further subdivides this group into ‘activity participants’ and ‘hobbyists’. Activity participants are people who pursue sport as a form of leisure for personal enrichment as well as for the development of skills and knowledge. Hobbyists are amateur athletes (i.e., ‘players’) who travel to take part in competitions and events. Nostalgia sport tourism (Redmond, 1990) refers to traveling to sport-themed destinations (e.g., sport hall of fames), vacations or tours where people have a chance to meet and interact with sport personalities and sport stadiums as tourist attractions (Gibson & Fairley, 2011). Nostalgia and/or a chance to pay homage to a sport personality, place, or event that holds meaning to an individual motivates this type of tourism. Recognizing consumers’ interests in sport nostalgia, corporations, as well as sport leagues and governing structures have designed campaigns dedicated to capitalizing on these feelings. They are making conscious attempts to instill and monetize the features of sport that go beyond the activities themselves, and to commercialize history and salubrious socialization as ways to create additional revenue streams. As sport entities attempt to penetrate new markets and expand global market share, sport tourism will respond in kind and attempt to attract these new customers. This further demonstrates the sport industry’s intertwined nature and networked business practices.

Opening up new markets or attracting people—before, during, and after—to sporting events is often offered as a reason for communities to host sporting events. While sport event tourism includes traveling to large- and small-scale sporting events, most of the research on the subject is dedicated to large-scale events or mega-event tourism, and specifically Olympic tourism. Weed (2008) defined Olympic tourism as

“tourism behavior motivated or generated by Olympic related activities” (p. 22). This general definition is purposely vague and is intended to encompass all the activities prior to, during, and after Olympic events that motivate and generate tourism.

While it is not salient whether mega-event tourism, such as Olympic tourism or World Cup tourism, are different from each other, it is clear that mega-event tourism is different from other forms of sport event tourism. Mega-events—given their prestige, coverage, wealth, status, relationship with governments and non-sport NGOs, and general ‘ripple effect’—deserved specific attention. Distinguishing between small- and large-scale sporting events is not new, but recently, scholars have moved beyond general analyses to more nuanced critical analyses (e.g., Hiller, 1998; Cornelissen, 2004, Preuss, 2005, Weed, 2008; Highman & Hinch, 2009). Associated with these more nuanced approaches is research investigating leverage (Chalip, 2006b), bundling (Chalip & McGuirly, 2004), competition among cities to host less globally known events where outcomes are far less clear (Gratton, Shibli, & Coleman, 2005), and research concerning non-elite and non-competitive sporting events (Nogawa, Yamaguchi, & Hagi, 1996; Ryan & Lockyer, 2002).

Sport tourism research is an exemplar model for globalization of sport scholars to follow. This is not only because sport tourism and mega-events have direct relationships to globalization characteristics, but also because scholars have continued to employ creative approaches and generate specific findings with generalizable results. Further, sport tourism has direct ties to sport media. The media representations of the Olympic Games serve to generate national pride while showcasing the host country—and its

features—to the rest of the world. In other words, in addition to covering the sporting events, the sport media promotes the destination and creates nostalgia both before and after the games in hopes of generating, among other things, tourism prior, during, and after mega-events. Therefore, while sport tourism may be a phenomenon unto itself, it—like all issues related to globalization—cannot be completely divorced from its context and its relationships to other disciplines, interests, and networks. Once again, it is obvious that a general, encompassing approach is needed to produce a robust conceptualization of sport-related phenomenon—including sport tourism—in the global age.

Sport Governance

Governance or ‘good governance’—like globalization—has no agreed upon definition (Hoye & Cukelly, 2007). This disagreement is further exacerbated due to the proliferation of distinct organizations that contribute to sport governance at different levels of formal sport. Formal sport of all kinds—intramural, community, collegiate, professional, international, etc.—are all subject to some kind of governance structure. However, several scholars (Forster, 2006; Palmer, 2013) have pointed out that as sport has diffused across the globe “an ever-increasing range of organizations and institutions with competing claims to authority over production and consumption” (Palmer, 2013, p. 39) has emerged. These organizations’ roles include (but are not limited to) establishing rules and regulations, creating and enforcing sport policy, controlling media rights and production, resolving disputes, and maintaining relationships with sporting bodies, commercial interests, and governments. Global sport governance is littered with struggles

over power, wealth, and knowledge (Murphy, 2000), and this has led to a sport governance literature that is small and splintered (Forster, 2006).

Palmer (2013) claims that global sport governance has three distinct levels (See Table 10): supranational, national, and sub-national. He further notes that each of these levels influence and cause tensions with each other simultaneously. Forster (2006) notes that global sport governance organizations do not form a homogenous group, but serve three primary functions: 1) governance of sport at a global level; 2) governance of a global sporting event; and 3) governance through the performance of a specialist function (e.g., ICAS, CAAS, WADA, FIMS, etc.). Characterizing sport governance and its institutional infrastructure as ‘systemic’, Henry (2007) states:

Systemic governance, which concerns the way that sport is governed, not directly by national and international sport bodies (such as FIFA and the IOC) but rather through the interaction between such bodies and other major stakeholders [media companies, governmental organizations, sponsors, athletes’ associations and transnational bodies such as the European Union (EU)] in a network of actors involved in competition, cooperation, negotiation and mutual adjustment. Here, the concern with understanding governance is with understanding the relationships between such stakeholders and the processes of their interactions. (p. 7-8)

Table 10: Governance of Global Sport

Level	Description
Supranational	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cosmocracy • Transnational class dominated by corporate sector • IOC, FIFA, La Société du Tour de France • Focus on mega-events
National	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • National bodies, organizations and governments • Meso range of policy concerns • Focus on elite sport, doping licensing, broadcasting and regulation
Sub-national	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Local and regional bodies, organizations and governments • Focus on policy interpretation rather than formulation

Note: Reprinted from *Global Sport Policy* by C. Palmer (p. 45), London, UK: Sage.

Evident from these scholars' sport governance descriptions are the tensions seen elsewhere in the globalization literature. These tensions include the vast networks of organizations—i.e., the multitude of stakeholders and their agendas—concerned with sport governance and the creation, implementation, and enforcement of sport policy. In addition, tensions include concerns regarding sovereignty and authority (i.e., does a nation-state have authority over its sporting practices), issues with uniform, global compliance, costs, media rights, labor migration/drain, and the ever-increasing pressure on governments to conduct the governance of sport through corporations' and non-governmental organizations with supranational agendas (Palmer, 2013).

As Woods (2002) states, “global governance is increasingly being undertaken by a variety of networks, coalitions and informal arrangements which lie a little further beyond the public gaze and the direct control of governments” (p. 42). Given that global sport governance and global sport policy—which are intimately connected—are described the same way, future research should endeavor to critically investigate these

governance and policy networks and determine how these arrangements are shaping sport governance and sport policy. As Palmer (2013) states, “Policy is essentially a ‘thing’ that is created by some and implemented by others, and it is imperative that we understand who is involved, how, where, when and why, in the governance of sport” (p. 40).

Sport Marketing

Globalization processes and characteristics have dramatically altered marketing campaigns and activities. No longer is the traditional conceptualization of marketing as an exchange process where organizations—under the edicts of profitability and efficiency—attempt to meet customers’ needs and desires (Kotler, Saunders, & Armstrong, 2004; Brassington & Pettitt, 2002) an accurate or representative description. Even definitions stressing the importance of building sustainable and long-lasting relationships among organizations and consumers (Grönroos, 1994) have been criticized for not capturing products’ (i.e., sport’s) unique characteristics and/or globalization’s impact on marketing (Chadwick & Beech, 2007). The same criticisms can be levied against previous discussions of sport marketing, as proposed sport marketing definitions (e.g., Shank, 2005; Mullin, Hardy, & Sutton, 2000; Pitts & Stotlar, 1996, etc.) have been generic and treated sport as a byproduct instead of a definition/driving characteristic that requires specific attention. Identifying this lapse, Chadwick and Beech (2007) offer the following definition of sport marketing: “It [sport marketing] is an ongoing process through which contests with an uncertain outcome are staged creating opportunities for the simultaneous fulfillment of direct and indirect objectives among sport customers,

support business and other related individuals and organisation” (p. 4). This definition recognizes that traditional marketing differs from sport marketing. Sport marketing has different stakeholders, maintains a unique societal position that allows it to penetrate diverse market segments rendered unreachable for other products, allows organizations that are not directly involved in sport to pursue it as an implicit acknowledgement of its crossover appeal, and, at times, pursued goals that are not solely commercial (e.g., campaigns that address social issues like racism, domestic violence, obesity, poverty, etc.). Finally, sport marketing is the primary way for sport organizations and events to compete off the field, which has prompted calls for strategic sport marketing (Shilbury, Westerbeek, Quick, & Funk, 2009). As Shilbury, Westerbeek, Quick, and Funk (2009) state, “marketing assumes greater significance than other management functions in sport organizations, as it remains the principal means by which sports compete off the field” (p. 5).

As the above description demonstrates, sport marketing is a broad and complex phenomenon that has spurred numerous academic articles and books. These works cover a plethora of diverse topics related to sport marketing and its relevance to sport management practitioners and scholars. Above all, these works have shown that sport marketing is a multidimensional activity that, as Smith and Stewart (2015) state:

Involves the application of marketing concepts to sport products and services and...the marketing of non-sport products through an association to sport. However, sport marketing is unlike conventional marketing in that it also has the ability to encourage the consumption of non-sport products and services by association. It is thus important to understand that sport marketing means both the marketing of sport itself, and the use of sport as a tool to market other products and services. (p. 5)

Recognizing that sport marketing is unlike traditional marketing, the remainder of this section is dedicated to highlighting several of sport marketing's distinct features, and demonstrating how effective sport marketers must go beyond the traditional 4-P marketing mix and consider additional elements (Chadwick & Beech, 2007; Smith & Stewart, 2014). In addition, this section, when appropriate, addresses the related phenomena of sport branding, brand image, and brand equity. Each of these discussions will be presented with an emphasis on how globalization processes are impacting strategies surrounding sport marketing and highlight appropriate sport management research areas. While this will barely scratch the surface of sport marketing in the global age, it is intended to once again showcase how globalization processes are changing sport managers' expected expertise.

Chadwick and Beech (2007) outline 13 distinct features of sport marketing (See Table 11). While all of these features are worthy of individual discussion, two (bolded in the table)—due to space limitations—have been selected to showcase how globalization processes are further separating sport marketing from traditional marketing. This increasing divergence provides further support for the notion that sport marketing cannot be solely considered under the umbrella of traditional marketing. Sport management practitioners would benefit from continuing to monitor traditional marketing literatures, and noting, especially within globalization context, how sport marketing is changing and responding to the global age. Sport's unique features mandate that sport marketing be considered outside the ideological trappings and heuristic pitfalls that constrain traditional marketing, and become a discipline and practice in its own right.

Table 11: Thirteen Distinct Features of Sport Marketing

1. Sport is product led.
2. Sport is all about the uncertainty of outcome.
3. Sport customers help to produce the product.
4. Sport organizations sometimes adopt a strange approach to marketing.
5. Sport products are socially and culturally embedded.
6. Sport businesses have limited control over their products.
7. Sport measure performance in different ways.
8. Sport has unique relationships with broadcasters and the media.
9. Sports fans are unlikely to purchase products from rival sport organizations.
10. Sport marketers face organization obstacles to their acceptance.
11. Sport organizations underestimate the power and value of their brands.
12. Sport organizations can suffer from marketing myopia.
13. Sport organizations have a strange relationship with other organizations.

Source: Chadwick & Beech, 2007, p. 8 -13

While appreciating Chadwick and Beech’s list, it should be noted that not all sport marketers agree with their distinctions, and, in fact, this author takes exception to several of these ‘distinct features’—namely that sport businesses have limited control over their products and that sport is all about the uncertainty of outcome. Sport is about much more than the uncertainty of outcomes, and approaching it in this manner will certainly restrict a business’ control over their product(s). Sport marketing can leverage a myriad of sport’s unique features, and constraining marketing approaches to uncertainty of outcomes limits approaches, campaigns, and appeal—the opposite of marketing’s purposes. Further, this implies a restrictive view of sport business’ products, and seems to contradict the warnings regarding marketing myopia. Viewing sport products with a wide angle engenders new ideas and expands what can constitute a sport product.

Objections notwithstanding, Chadwick and Beech’s distinct features offer an excellent opportunity to examine sport marketing in terms of how globalization processes

are impacting it. The following discussion deconstructs two features (bolded above), and positions them within the context of globalization. While this exercise is being done with only two of the most relevant features, it could be done with any of the features listed above. Globalization processes are changing how sport marketing is conceived and practiced, and these changes are worthy of documentation and examination. Solely relying on dated marketing techniques, especially in sport marketing situations, is destined to produce suboptimal results and most likely abject failures.

The first feature to be addressed is that ‘sport organizations have a strange relationship with other organizations’ (Chadwick & Beech, 2007, p. 12). Chadwick and Beech’s contention is that sport organizations do not effectively collaborate with other organizations and that this leaves them in a perpetual state of flux. They point to the relationships among ‘sponsors and sponsees’, claiming that sponsors are rarely able to actualize and leverage the full benefits of these relationships. This inevitably makes the sponsor unhappy/dissatisfied and the relationship ends, which, in turn, forces the sponsee to search out new sponsors. In short, not fully actualizing sponsorship relationships creates a series of short-term partnerships, and makes sport organizations constantly allocate resources to securing new sponsors. This uncertainty is an impediment to economic forecasting and strategic planning, and can be taxing to an organization’s staff. According to Chadwick and Beech (2007), “As both the academic literature and practitioners acknowledge, for 21st century organizations to be successful, they must collaborate to compete. Many sport organizations have yet to fully embrace this notion” (p. 13).

While the curious and often suboptimal relationships among sport organizations and their marketing partners can extend beyond sponsorship agreements, the sponsor-ponsee relationship serve as a prime example of sport marketing practices that must be reexamined and reimagined in the global age. The impacts from the lack of collaboration among sport organizations and/or developing long-term sustainable partnerships are further exacerbated when undertaken upon the global scale. However, there has been surprisingly little critical research examining how globalization processes are affecting global sport sponsorship (Amis & Cornwell, 2005) or how sport sponsorship can be utilized as a strategic tool in the global age (cf., Meenaghan, 1999; Walliser, 2003). As Amis and Cornwell (2005) state:

The lack of investigation into global sport sponsorship...is problematic for a number of reason. First, the flows of global capital to achieve...objectives have become increasingly significant...Thus, decisions to engage in sport sponsorship agreements have become strategically much more important for corporate executives. Second, the economic, political and social issues that accompany this trend of increased investment are similarly ill-understood. Third, we are still at a nascent state of comprehension with respect to the ways in which economic, technological, ideological, social and geopolitical shifts will interact to reconstitute global sport sponsorship opportunities. (p. 2)

Globalization features—time-space compression, improved communication and transportation technologies, and an increased global consciousness (aka notions of a ‘global citizenry’)—have facilitated the development of macro sport marketing campaigns that can be tailored to specific geographic and demographic segments. These campaigns have allowed sport marketers to navigate/obfuscate national boundaries, achieve local resonance, operate in diverse contexts, and pursue varied objectives (Amis

& Cornwell, 2005). They have simultaneously diminished and enhanced the importance of place while increasing the significance of perception and positioning. They have helped sport marketing shed the anchors of convention and propelled some sport brands into the global atmosphere that is devoid of place, universals, norms, sovereignty, and tradition. These brands come in the form of corporations (e.g., Nike), organizations (e.g., IOC), events (e.g., World Cup), and teams (e.g., Dallas Cowboys, Real Madrid, etc.). However given the dynamic nature of sport marketing and global sport sponsorship, the rationale behind these activities has received little scrutiny. It is unclear whether the two most cited reasons for engaging in sport marketing activities—increasing awareness and modifying brand image (Walliser, 2003; Cornwell & Maignan, 1998)—are still viable or if other reasons are equally as valid. Given increased costs, greater reach, more interconnectedness, and advanced techniques, it is worthwhile to investigate why organizations and corporations are engaging in sport marketing, whether it is attracting new firms (or whether previous ones are returning), and if these partnerships are producing desired results—these examinations have been largely absent from the sport management literature.

While these gaps in the literature are worrisome, the lack of academic scrutiny addressing sponsors' and marketing partners' problematic practices is far more concerning (Amis & Cornwell, 2005). It seems that little thought has been given to sponsors' and marketing partners' authority to dictate performance schedules, define (un)acceptable behavior, reward desired behavior and conformity, influence team appearances, and control venues. Further, it is unknown whether sponsors' activities are

having detrimental impacts on athletes, fans, sport organization themselves, and/or society members. Sport management scholars cannot just simply accept the role of sponsors and marketing partners; they must take a more critical view of their impacts on both the immediate and wider sporting context as well as society itself.

The second feature to be discussed is that ‘sport organizations underestimate the power and value of their brands’ (Chadwick & Beech, 2007, p. 12). More and more sport organizations, particularly teams and mega-events, assert that their brand represents more than a team, a game, or an event. Sport brands can represent different things to different people. To some they represent historical events and struggles, others recreate images of personal nostalgia, others associate them with a place, others see ideas and causes in them, and still others see them as community members that have been a cornerstone for a city/nation through good and bad times (Bouchet, Hillairet & Bodet, 2013). Brands are multi-dimensional entities capable of representing and signaling various things to different people. Floch (2001) states that a brand must have two fundamental dimensions: 1) it has to be considered a signifying entity and 2) as a signifying entity it should refer to mental associations, codes, meanings, references, and evocations. Taken from this perspective, brands have to have recognizable and identifiable components that can be visual (name, logo, design, color, etc.) or not (sound, music, slogan, taste, etc.). Brands have the ability to create symbolism and convey meaning through narratives and discourse, and marketers often exploit individual’s personal and emotional attachments to brands.

While developing criteria for a brand may be somewhat straightforward, creating an exact definition for what qualifies as a sport brand is much more difficult (Bouchet, Hillairet & Bodet, 2013). This difficulty is enhanced as more and more organizations that are unrelated to sport pursue rigorous sport marketing campaigns or host events. For example, the FedEx St. Jude Classic is an event on the PGA Tour that has been held annually since 1958. However, whether FedEx and St. Jude Children's Research Hospital are sport brands is a debatable topic. The tournament has history, evokes meaning and emotions, and has a recognizable name and logo. It appears that brands can have multiple identities and occupy several brand taxonomies. This complexity and confusion is further enhanced in the global marketplace. The New York Yankees and Barcelona are undoubtedly global sport brands, but they have different meanings to different market segments. Sometimes this is contingent upon proximity, place, and/or mediated messages. Some global fans see the New York Yankees as a reflection of the United States, while others see them as the beacon of greed and commercialization endemic to sport. The same is true for Barcelona—some see the team as the symbol of Catalan resistance and/or a stance against centralized Spanish governments, while others see it as a soccer team. Globalization processes are further conflating the ideas of a sport brand as foreign investment and advertisers are becoming commonplace in once regional or national teams and events. Recognizing these opportunities, marketers are developing campaigns and molding brands into global brands and some into global sports brands. Sport management scholars should continue to investigate these activities and monitor what effects this is having on fanship, community involvement, and bottom lines.

DISCOURSE

The idea of discourse has received significant academic attention, and, like globalization, scholars define and approach the idea of discourse through varying conceptualizations. This, naturally, has resulted in vigorous debates about what constitutes discourse, the origins of discourse, the relationships between discourse and power, who actually controls discourse, how it should be investigated and analyzed, and, ultimately whether discourse produces “truth”.. Recognizing these academic tensions, this section endeavors to present how discourse—the object of study in this research—is approached and conceptualized.

Discourse and Power

Heavily influenced by Foucault (1966/1970, 1969/1972, 1971/1971, 1976/1978, 1981), this research considers discourses and their corresponding knowledge(s) to be facilitators of power that entice entities to actively pursue their creation, diffusion, and utilization. Diamond and Quinby (1988) state that Foucault defines discourse “as a form of power that circulates in the social field and can attach to strategies of domination as well as those of resistance” (p. 185). Fairclough (1992) expands the definition, maintaining that Foucault’s concept of discourse refers to the “different ways of structuring areas of knowledge and social practice” (p. 3).

For Foucault, discourses are an amalgamation of statements that appear across a range of mediums in various forms that inextricably link power and knowledge. He argues that dominant societal, cultural, and political power groups compete via

“discursive practices”—linguistics practices and the use of socially charged language to produce dominant fields of knowledge (i.e., discourse)—and as a result, discourses are neither true nor false, but rather, the dynamic byproducts of power struggles. Therefore, truth, which is also dynamic, is the product of the power relations that create and constitute the prevailing forms of truth and meaning (Fairclough, 1996). Since truth is a verisimilitude, a competing or emerging discourse can displace an existing discourse and produce a new (or modified) discursive formation, knowledge, and practice. Discourses, then, have productive and disciplinary power because they can enable and constrain fields of knowledge and govern what can be thought about, discussed, and acted upon (Foucault, 1969/1972, 1981). In his own words, Foucault (1976/1978) states:

It is in discourse that power and knowledge are joined together. And for this very reason, we must conceive discourse as a series of discontinuous segments whose tactical function is neither uniform nor stable. To be more precise, we must not imagine a world of discourse divided between accepted discourse and excluded discourse, or between the dominant discourse and the dominated one, but as a multiplicity of discursive elements that can come into play in various strategies...We must make allowance for the complex and unstable process whereby discourse can be both an instrument and an effect of power, but also a hindrance, a stumbling block, a point of resistance and a starting point for an opposed strategy. Discourse transmits and produces power; it reinforces it, but also undermines and exposes it, renders it fragile and makes it possible to thwart it. (p. 100-101)

For Foucault, power maneuvers in and through discourse and discursive practices, and discourses are where power is employed and enacted (Fairclough, 1989, Parker, 1992). Foucault (1984) claims that power exists in all social science fields, institutions, organizations, and human relationships, but that it is not distributed evenly. This uneven power distribution begets strategic games designed to realign power relations, which

could ultimately deconstruct and/or reconstruct a discourse and bring forth a new modicum/source of power (Fornet-Betancourt, Becker, & Gomez-Müller, 1987). Power (i.e., knowledge) is made operational when discursive knowledge sustains ‘regimes of truth’ and excludes others from consideration (Foucault, 1975/1977, 1976/1978, 1980, 1982). Power, then, is any reality (i.e., widely accepted belief) that is reinforcing (and reinforced by) types of knowledge. As Foucault (1975/1977) states, “We should admit...that power and knowledge directly imply one another; that there is no power relation without the correlative constitution of a field of knowledge, nor any knowledge that does not presuppose and constitute at the same time power relations” (p. 27).

Influential Discourses

As shown above, discourse is a form of power that can shape accepted knowledge, expertise, professions, and academic disciplines. However, it would be a mistake to conceptualize discourse as an island or as stand-alone entities that are devoid of outside influence. Discourses do not develop and mature independently or in isolation. Even as individuals attempt to control the development, maturation, and profit of discourse, they cannot completely ignore the impacts of other discourses. These discourses act as context and can complement each other or act as competing narratives designed to blunt and/or reject the prevailing discourse. The globalization discourse would not have developed along the same lines if other discourses were not emerging and solidifying simultaneously. While listing and describing the litany of discourses that helped mold the globalization and the globalization of sport discourses is beyond the

scope of this section, this discussion would be lacking if three other prominent discourses were not mentioned. Each of these discourses contributed to scholars' and journalists' understanding of globalizations' multiple dimensions (Steger, 2009). The remainder of this section briefly presents environmentalism, neoliberalism, and dynamic international relations as discourses that influenced and contributed to the development, evolution, and proliferation of the globalization discourse.

Environmentalism—namely environmental concerns and sustainability—is often referred to as a quintessential globalization topic. Long before globalization became a dominant discourse, environmental scholars were noting that environmental and ecological concerns did not respect national boundaries and that environmental problems often had impacts beyond their places of origin (Speth, 2003; Najam, Runnalls, & Halle, 2007). National governments seemed to accept this idea, as numerous environmental treaties (e.g., Ramsar Convention, UN Convention on Law of the Sea, Montreal Protocol, Kyoto Protocol, Bali Action Plan, etc.) beginning in the early 1970s were developed to address environmental concerns (e.g., wetland preservation, marine species protection, ocean pollution, ozone layer, global warming, etc.) (Steger, 2009). However, some scholars worry that environmentalism is getting the short shrift within the globalization discourse and that the economic and political dimensions of globalization are dominating the conversation (Speth, 2003; Najam, Runnalls, & Halle, 2007; Wijen, Zoeteman, Pieters, & van Seters, 2005). These scholars consistently point out that globalization and environmentalism are intimately linked and that these linkages impact the other

globalization dimensions—yet they warn that the dynamics of these linkages and interactions are scantily understood. As Najam, Runnalls, and Halle (2007) state:

It is important to highlight that not only does globalization impact the environment, but the environment impacts the pace, direction and quality of globalization. At the very least, this happens because environmental resources provide the fuel for economic globalization, but also because our social and policy responses to global environmental challenges constrain and influence the context in which globalization happens. (p. 7)

The environmentalism discourse relates to the globalization discourse as it calls for the recognition of global interconnectedness, downplays the importance of national boundaries, and advocates for the adoption of a global consciousness that highlights the collateral consequences of individual actions. It too pleads for an increase in international environmental policy and governance that address the perils of environmental degradation and holds nation-states accountable. This discourse accepts the notion of time-space compression, supports the idea of using advanced technologies to monitor and measure environmental change, and concedes that the environmental impacts of globalization processes are being experienced unevenly. The scientific acceptance of global environmental issues (e.g., global warming, rising sea levels, melting ice caps, etc.) provided support for globalization scholars' claims and projections. However, it should be also noted that the political rhetoric denouncing global climate change, the environmental impacts of economic globalization, and international environmental regulation has also influenced the globalization discourse. These competing environmental perspectives have acted as an impediment to the full acceptance and exploration of the linkage and relationships among globalization processes and

environmentalism. This is a good example of how an opposing, competing discourse can stall knowledge creation and prevent action designed to address issues and concerns. This is often the purpose behind creating and diffusing opposing discourses.

The second discourse that is closely tied to globalization is the neoliberal approach to economic and social policy—here referred to as the discourse of neoliberalism. Resembling globalization, the exact definition of neoliberalism has been the sources of rigorous debate and, as a result, no agreed upon conceptualization of it has been accepted (Springer, 2012; Sparke, 2013). However, this discussion approaches neoliberalism as an economic discourse that advocates for the freer movement of goods, limited governmental intervention, creation of an unencumbered global market, easier free trade, and the maximization of profits and efficiency (Shah, 2010; Harvey, 2005). Harvey (2005) states that neoliberalism is “a theory of political economic practices that proposes that human well-being can best be advanced by liberating individual entrepreneurial freedoms and skills within an institutional framework characterized by strong private property rights, free markets, and free trade” (p. 2). Robbins (1999) outlines five key principles of the neoliberal ideology: 1) human progress is best achieved through sustained economic growth; 2) free markets—i.e., markets without governmental interference—are the most efficient and socially optimal allocation of resources; 3) everyone all across the world would benefit from economic globalization; 4) privatization removes public sector inefficiencies; and 5) governments’ main economic function should be to provide infrastructure designed to advance the rule of law, especially law concerning property rights and contracts.

Similar to the discourse of environmentalism, the discourse of neoliberalism came to prominence before globalization's emergence. Rooted in the works of Adam Smith and David Ricardo, neoliberalism opposed Keynesian economics and gained significant notoriety throughout the 1970s and 1980s as powerful politicians (e.g., President Nixon, President Reagan, Prime Minister Thatcher, etc.) became neoliberal champions. After remaining in relative obscurity for nearly 200 years, it became the guiding economic philosophy and was touted as the panacea of the world's ills (e.g., poverty, disease, inequality, etc.). In short order, neoliberalism proponents (i.e., experts) started to occupy powerful positions within academia, the media, corporations, bureaucracies, and international economic institutions. It became the dominant economic discourse for capitalistic countries, and acted as a rallying cry against the Soviet Union and communism. As Harvey (2005) states, "Neoliberalism has...become hegemonic as a mode of discourse. It has pervasive effects on ways of thought to the point where it has become incorporated into the common-sense way many of us interpret, live in, and understand the world" (p. 3). The rise of the neoliberalism discourse was a direct precursor to the rise of the globalization discourse, and some believe it remains the primary driver behind globalization (Litonjua, 2008).

Unlike the environmentalism discourse, the neoliberalism discourse has so often been linked to globalization that many scholars have gone to great lengths to demonstrate that globalization is not a one-dimensional (i.e., economic) phenomenon (e.g., Steger, 2009; Appadurai, 1990a, 1990b, 1996; etc.). Covering this point in great detail above, it will not be reiterated here. However, what needs to be made salient is that the

neoliberalism discourse influenced and propelled the ascent of the globalization discourse. If it had not become the dominant economic discourse, the literature and realities of globalization (if they existed at all) would be extremely different. Further, the neoliberalism discourse is an exemplar of the power of discourse and how it can be used to further multiple agendas at once. Make no mistake that one of the primary drivers of the neoliberal discourse was the Cold War and a fear of Soviet dominance.

The third discourse that heavily influenced the mainstream and academic ascent of the globalization discourse was the dynamic international relations that occurred while the globalization discourse evolved and matured. Recognizing that international relations is extremely broad and that it can represent any number of events, this section takes a limited scope and highlights events that changed global perceptions and challenged the global order. Without question events like the end of the Vietnam War, the first Gulf War, and the end of Apartheid (and many others) influenced the globalization discourse, but, arguably no two events had larger impacts than the end of the Cold War and the terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001.

Even though some declared that international relations had failed and lambasted the field for failing to predict the dissolution of the Soviet Union and the end of the Cold War (Gaddis, 1992), it marked a turning point for world affairs and international relations research (Bueno de Mesquita, 1998). The end of the Cold War and the demise of the Soviet Union sparked a renaissance in the field of international relations and generated a diverse cache of literature that revisited major theoretical schools, evaluated projections and forecasting models, proposed new models that reflected the one-superpower world,

and explored how ideas, norms, and cultures influenced international relations (Brooks & Wohlforth, 2000). Prior to this landmark event, international relations scholars could not ignore the bi-polar (i.e., two superpower) world and had to account for how the competing nations would behave and react. If the Cold War had continued at its level of intensity throughout the 1990s and 2000s, the globalization literature would have had to account for these competing political and economic ideologies and this would undoubtedly have spurred perspectives that simply did not proliferate after the Cold War ended. While there were indications that the Soviet Union's power and capabilities were overstated, there was no definitive way to justify these perspectives, so the globalization literature would have had to produce globalization models/theories that reflected a globalized world under Soviet and communist ideologies. The end of Cold War shed this requirement—as it eliminated competing discourses—and allowed globalization to initially emerge under neoliberal, Western principles.

The now dominant economic discourse of neoliberalism coupled with the newly minted triumph of democracy and Western political ideology created a 'perfect storm' for the emerging concept of globalization. Globalization's meteoric rise would have never occurred if neoliberalism had remained dormant and the Cold War had persisted. These two contributing discourses along with environmentalism (albeit less so) helped pave the way for globalization to become the axial theme of the current era and materialize as a dominant discourse that can now be observed throughout the social sciences.

The recognition of a unipolar world was reflected in the early globalization works as hyperglobalists (e.g., Ōhmae, 1990, 1992; Reich, 1992; Albrow, 1990, 1996;

Fukuyama,1992; etc.) prophesized bullish projections related to the demise of the nation-state, global economic prosperity, and the benefits of increased interconnectedness. However, as these projections failed (or were slow) to materialize, scholars began to question the globalization discourse and its espoused economic benefits. The attacks of September 11th, 2001, and the United States's subsequent war on terror provided the kindling needed to reignite the globalization debates and send the globalization discourse into its current phase.

Following September 11th, globalization was no longer viewed as a panacea for the world's issues. As the mainstream and academic literatures examined the other sides of neoliberalism and globalization, individuals and institutions in the West began to become more aware of anti-Western sentiment, the plethora of competing political and religious ideologies, and the complexities of living in a globalized world. This event also—perhaps for the first time—called into question the perceived new world order and the world's future. The events that have followed such as the United States's wars in Afghanistan and Iraq, additional terrorist attacks across the world, the world recession of 2008, China's emergence as an economic superpower, the Arab Spring, Russia's annexation of Crimea, Greece's economic fallout, global warming, etc., have called for a reexamination of globalization and the development of a globalization discourse that captures globalization's intertwined nature and nuances. These events and many others that are not listed are influencing, impacting, and reshaping the globalization discourse, and scholars need to be cognizant of how it is being done, who is doing it, and why they are doing so.

The above arguments and observations can be directly applied to the globalization of sport discourse. The globalization of and global diffusion of sport literature would benefit from more research that was linked to environmentalism, sustainability, and environmental impacts (Thibault, 2009; Maguire, 2015). Investigating how neoliberalism, associated policies, and economic/organizational networks are affecting global sport labor, the sporting goods industry, mega-events, sport tourism, and sport marketing could provide valuable insight into sporting identities. These investigations could also help determine whether globalized sport marketing is developing fans, generating profits, or triggering resistance; and if nation-states are being systematically excluded due to increasing costs. In Chapter 4, this research study's findings demonstrate how international relations/realities during each Olympiad (e.g., Cold War, unipolar world, and rise of China) impacted the evolution of the globalization of sport discourse. However more work examining these relationships would provide additional evidence related to the discourse regarding the globalization of sport, and help highlight sport management scholars' and practitioners' future roles. The globalization of sport discourse is not permanent. It is in a constant state of evolution, and sport management scholars would benefit from continuing to examine its maturation.

Chapter 3: Methodology

This study employed a critical mixed method discourse analysis to analyze the globalization of sport discourse as offered through nine different newspapers' coverage of three different Olympic Games—1984, 2000, and 2008. The mixed method aspect of this research refers to the utilization of both quantitative and qualitative methods, under the guise of content analysis and critical discourse analysis respectively. First, a content analysis was used to assess whether the globalization of sport discourse followed the same trajectory as the general globalization discourse. Specifically, a traditional content analysis was used to address the first research question and determine whether the frequency of newspapers articles explicitly mentioning “globalization” (and “globalisation”) increased over time. This is intended to provide evidence that the globalization of sport discourse can be situated along the general globalization discourse as they developed and matured simultaneously.

While technically distinct, according to the academic literature, from discourse analysis, content analysis is related to and can be used to complement (Neuendorf, 2004) or in conjunction with discourse analysis (Hardy, Harley, & Phillips, 2004). In addition to simply counting the number of articles that mentioned “globalization”, the content analysis provided quantitative data regarding story type, the dimension of globalization being discussed (i.e., economic, cultural, political, and/or ecological), the number of sources quoted, the sources' affiliation, and article themes (See Appendix E).

Second, a critical discourse analysis with elements of Foucauldian discourse analysis (Edwards & Skinner, 2009) was used to read “above the level of a sentence, of

ways to create meaning, coherence, and accomplish purpose” (Gee & Handford, 2012, p. 1). The critical discourse analysis was designed to assess how globalization dimensions (e.g., economic, political, cultural, and ecological) evolved, and whether the sources that talked about these dimensions had a vested interest in the power relations inherent in international sport. While discourse analyses always examines language, they simultaneously investigate and question history, societal practices, societal groups, and accepted knowledge (Gee & Handford, 2012). A critical discourse analysis was considered appropriate to investigate research questions two and three, and used to assess how power functions are presented—and who is presenting them—through the globalization of sport discourse. As Foucault (1984) states, “Power is not evil. Power is strategic games” (Fornet-Betancourt, Becker, & Gomez-Müller, 1987, p. 129), and this research is interested in who is playing, how, why, and how these players are changing the game in general.

Patterns from each Olympic year, as well as overarching themes are also reported. The recognition of how themes evolved over time is crucial as it can provide evidence of a discourse’s power and how ideas can change from opinions to truths through discourse. This is a critical analysis in that it questions established truths and motives of those presenting these truths, investigates power relations, and does not accept the notion of common sense(s), the banality of sport journalism, or international sport stakeholders’ omnipresent altruistic façade.

To avoid confusion the following sections present a brief discussion of the elements of content analysis and discourse analysis, but at the most basic levels this

content analysis is quantitative, while the discourse analysis is conducted via a qualitative approach. The qualitative approach differs in that it is inferential and interpretive, while the quantitative approach is more descriptive in nature. However, given their compatibility and consonance, it should be noted that in agreement with Krippendorff (2013), their differences are less important than their ability to be used in conjuncture to develop a more nuanced and robust understanding of phenomena. As Krippendorff (2013) states:

As a form of compensation for the sometimes shallow results reported by the content analysts of 60 years ago, a variety of research approaches have begun to emerge that call themselves *qualitative*. I question the validity and usefulness of the distinction between quantitative and qualitative content analyses (emphasis in original). (p. 22)

The method presented here is centered on the notion that “content analysis has evolved into a repertoire of methods of research that promise to yield inferences from all kinds of verbal, pictorial, symbolic, and communication data” (Krippendorff, 2013, p. 23). For this research, this repertoire includes critical discourse analysis (Fairclough, 1989, 1992, 1998, 2003, 2005, 2006, 2010; van Dijk, 1991, 1993, 1997, 2008a; 2008b), and traditional quantitative content analysis. A mixed method approach is used in an effort to triangulate the data and, ultimately, make the findings reliable, valid, and generalizable. Hardy, Hardy, & Phillips (2004) summarize the rationale behind combining the methods well in stating:

As one moves from simple counting to more complex interpretation, the two forms of analysis become increasingly compatible, although at the expense of positivist objectives. For content analysis to form part of a discourse analytic methodology, it is necessary to weaken the assumption

that meaning is stable enough to be counted in an objective sense. From a discourse analytic perspective, all textual analysis is an exercise in interpretation and while clear exposition of the methods used to arrive at a particular interpretation is a hallmark of good research, it cannot remove the necessity for interpretation. With this proviso, content analysis can, through its focus on being systematic and quantitative, play a potentially useful role in expanding our understanding of the role of discourse in constructing the social. (p. 20)

CONTENT ANALYSIS

The term “content analysis” was not used in English until 1941 (Waples & Berelson, 1941). Barcus (1959) maintains that content analysis has been in use in the United States since the beginning of the 20th Century. Krippendorff (2013) goes further, claiming that systematic text analysis can be traced back to the Church’s inquisitorial pursuits the during 17th Century. Regardless of its origins, content analysis is a long-established methodology with the broad goal of providing “knowledge and understanding of the phenomenon under study” (Downe-Wamboldt; 1992, p. 314).

This longevity has, of course, resulted in scholars offering numerous content analysis definitions. Holsti (1969) offers a general definition: “any technique for making inferences by objectively and systematically identifying specified characteristics of messages” (p. 14). Rintala and Birrell (1984) defined content analysis as “a method for examining the message or content of the media, such as newspapers, in order to draw inferences about encoding and decoding practices of the communication system” (p. 232). Krippendorff (2013) recently stated that content analysis entails “a systematic reading of texts, images, and symbolic matter, not necessary from an author’s or user’s perspective” (p. 10). Krippendorff (2013) goes on to define the methodology as:

A research technique for making replicable and valid inferences from text (or other meaningful matter) to the contexts of their use..... As a research technique, content analysis provides new insights, increases a researcher's understanding of particular phenomena, or informs practical actions. Content analysis is a scientific tool. (p. 24)

Abandoning previous scholars' contentions mandating that content analyses be quantitative and objective (e.g., Berelson, 1952), recent works have recognized qualitative content analyses' potential to produce 'thicker' meaning and triangulated data. In fact, some scholars (e.g., Schreier, 2012) have argued that qualitative content analysis is a methodology in its own right. However, these scholars are quick to point out that quantitative content analysis and qualitative content analysis are related and that there are "no sharp lines dividing" (Schreier, 2012, p. 18) the two. They can—and some say should—be used together. Further, these recent works have discarded the idea of being "objective", and, instead, insisted that content analyses be replicable and valid. As Krippendorff (2013) states, "Replicability is measurable and validity is testable, but objectivity is neither" (p. 25).

Recent definitions, while varying somewhat, all indicate that content analysis is more than simply reading and counting words and articles as it requires going beyond the presented message and systematically decoding the text's symbolic message and greater meanings. As Downe-Wamboldt (1992) states, "content analysis is more than a counting game; it is concerned with meanings, intentions, consequences, and context" (p. 313). From these messages and meanings, a healthy understanding of the globalization of sport discourse can emerge. This conceptualization helps highlight content analysis' greatest strengths—unobtrusiveness and non-reactiveness. Content analyses do not disturb

research settings and allow researchers to determine where emphasis should be placed in a given study (Edwards & Skinner, 2009). For instance, this research study emphasizes the Olympic Games' history, the power of international sport, international sport governance organizations, sport management literature and theory, and the real world context of the times (e.g., Cold War, neoliberalism, environmentalism, etc.) while examining the globalization of sport discourse. Therefore, a content analysis was deemed appropriate to examine newspaper articles, count globalization articles' frequency, and address the first research question. However—beyond frequencies—content analysis also provides context and information pertinent to the second and third research questions. This points to an often over-looked strength of content analysis—flexibility. Content analyses are flexible enough to investigate a large variety of issues via numerous meaningful texts (i.e., words, articles, pictures, etc.). This flexibility also allows for the inclusion of/coupling with qualitative techniques—namely discourse analysis—while maintaining methodological rigor. In summary, a mixed method discourse analysis that contains a content analysis, like the one used for this research, allows scholars to deconstruct text, its meanings, societal practices, influences, and potential (sport management) implications.

DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

Discourse analysis like content analysis has a long academic history and a number of disciplines have adopted and altered this method from its linguistic roots. Johnstone (2008) defines discourse analysis as “a research method that can (and is being) used by scholars with a variety of academic and non-academic affiliations, coming from a variety of disciplines, to answer a variety of questions” (p. xiii). Hardy, Hardy, & Phillips (2004) are more precise, stating, “discourse analysis is a methodology for analyzing social phenomena that is qualitative, interpretive, and constructionist. It explores how the socially produced ideas and objects that populate the world were created and are held in place” (p. 19). Several assumptions undergird discourse analysis. First, it is founded upon a strong social constructivist epistemology—i.e., discourse analysts do not believe that language represents reality, but that it contributes to the construction of (social) reality (Schreier, 2012). Second, meaning—i.e., social reality—develops from interrelated bodies of texts—i.e., discourse—and discourse births new ideas, objects, and practices. Third, discourse analysts assume that it is impossible to divorce discourse from its broader context (Fairclough, 2005). Therefore, it is assumed that discourses, in and of themselves, have no inherent meaning, and by extension no inherent power, so they are constructed and have to be situated in their historical and social context. To reiterate through Hardy (2001), discourses are “created, supported, and contested through the production, dissemination, and consumption of texts; and emanate from interactions between the social groups and the complex structures in which the discourse is embedded” (p. 28). This is the concern and scope of discourse analysis.

This research study adopts the social science version of discourse analysis and distinguishes descriptive discourse analysis from critical discourse analysis. Descriptive discourse analyses are, as the name suggests, primarily descriptive and are rooted in linguistics (e.g., van Dijk, 1997). These investigations typically describe how text (and talk) is organized, how individuals (or entities) pursue conversational goals, and how conversational strategies are employed (Schreier, 2012). Critical discourse analysis, which is undertaken in this research, has its origins in the social sciences and typically examines how discourse molds and directs individuals' and societies' perceptions and conceptualizations of a particular phenomenon. Obviously there are overlaps between the two, but as Schreier (2012) states:

Critical discourse analysis in its many different manifestations focuses on instances of dominant discourse on the instances of dominant discourse (also called 'hegemonic discourse'). It may use the same tools as descriptive discourse analysis. But unlike descriptive analysis, it does not limit itself to the analysis of language, but also includes the relationship between language, the processes of producing, receiving, and disseminating language and the larger context in which this takes place. (p. 46)

The literature explaining critical discourse analysis clearly states that power and its relationship to discourse is central to any understanding of discourse, and researchers must consider who has (and wants to keep) power. As van Dijk (2008) states, critical discourse analysis "is a type of discourse analytical research that studies the way social power abuse, dominance and inequality are enacted, reproduced and resisted by text and talk in the social and political context" (p. 85). Fairclough (2005) agrees, stating that critical discourse analysis should endeavor to:

Systematically explore often opaque relationships of causality and determination between (a) discursive practices, events and texts, and (b) wider social and cultural structures, relations and processes; to investigate how such practices, events and texts arise out of and are ideologically shaped by relations of power and struggles over power; and to explore the opacity of these relationships between discourse and society is itself a factor securing power and hegemony. (p. 93)

Critical discourse analysis demands a multidisciplinary approach because this method does not allow for one to separate discourse from context and not all contexts are encased within one discipline. Simply put, to understand discourse and context, like globalization, a critical gaze from multiple disciplines is required. This approach is rooted in the influential works of authors such as Karl Marx, Antonio Gramsci, Friedrich Nietzsche, Pierre Bourdieu, Jürgen Habermas, and Michel Foucault (and many other great theorists). These intellectuals question “Truth”, while addressing the relationships among power, ideology, social practices, and their reproduction (or lack thereof) through discourse. Crucially, critical discourse analysts recognize social inequality and manipulation, and want to resist or reverse it. Critical discourse analysts believe that discourse constructs power and that people use discourse to legitimize their power and dominate others. Fairclough and Wodak (1997, p. 271-280) outline critical discourse analysis’s eight principle tenets, and these were used to guide this dissertation (See Table 12).

Table 12: Tenets of Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA)

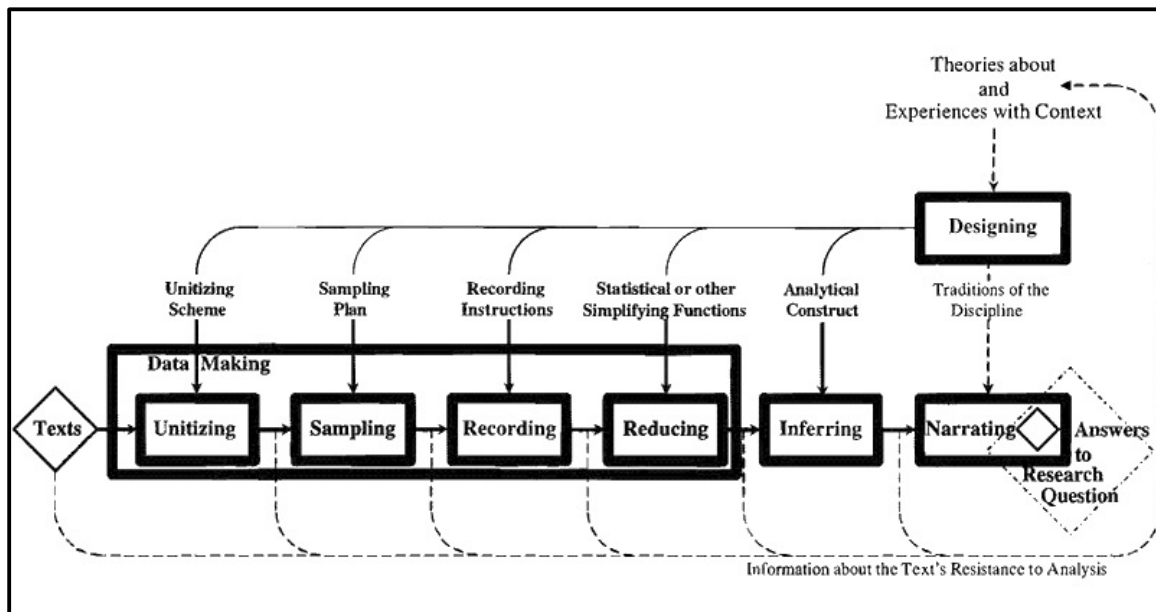
CDA addresses social problems	Discourse is historical
Power relations are discursive	Links between text and society are mediated
Discourse constitutes society and culture	CDA is explanatory and interpretative
Discourse does ideological work	Discourse is a form of social action

MODEL CONCEPTUALIZATION

Since the method utilized in this study is essentially a hybrid model, it is worthwhile to illustrate how it is conceived. This model borrows heavily from Krippendorff's (2013) model of content analysis (See Figure 5), but makes a critical distinction in Stage 5—inferring. It is within this stage that the critical perspective must be paramount as it is in this stage that “texts moves an analysis outside the data” (Krippendorff, 2013, p. 85). A critical lens should be used when designing a study and utilized throughout “Data Making” (Stages 1 – 4). However, a critical discourse analysis will fall short if Stage 5 and Stage 6 fail to question “Truths” and the people perpetuating these truths. Stage 5 and Stage 6 are where the elements of critical discourse analysis are most salient, and where the researcher should endeavor to adhere to critical discourse analysis’ eight principle tenants. This employment of Krippendorff’s model is intended to demonstrate how content analysis and discourse can be used in conjunction and indicate where exactly the methodologies may diverge.

Krippendorff’s model is not as linear as its illustration suggests. There can be many iterative loops—as indicated by the dotted lines—and researchers can go back and adjust as needed. Further, the model is not absolute, as content analyses may have different components not represented in Figure 5 or place greater emphasis on certain components.

Figure 5: Krippendorff's Content Analysis Model



Note: Reprinted from *Content Analysis: An Introduction to Its Methodology* (p. 86) by K. Krippendorff (2013), Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Below each defined stage of Krippendorff's model is succinctly described. Krippendorff (2013) posits that the first four stages combine to what can be called "data making—making computable data from raw or unedited texts" (p. 84). The following list summarizes Krippendorff's model (p. 84-87) and presents his descriptions of each stage.

Data Making: Stages 1-4

1. Unitizing: Distinguishes between relevant and irrelevant text while ensuring no meaning is lost. "*Unitizing* draws systematic distinctions within a continuum of otherwise undifferentiated text—documents, images, voices, websites, and other observables—that are of interest to an analysis, omitting irrelevant matter but keeping together what cannot be divided without loss of meaning" (emphasis in original) (p. 84).
2. Sampling: Limits observations to workable data sets. "*Sampling* allows the analyst to economize on research efforts by limiting observations to a manageable subset of units that is statistically or conceptually representative of the set of all possible units, the population or universe of interest (emphasis in original) (p. 84).

3. *Recording/Coding*: Turns text into analyzable and comparable data. “*Recording/Coding* bridges the gap between texts and someone’s reading them,...or between separate observations and their situational interpretations (emphasis in original) (p. 85).
4. *Reducing*: Allows researchers to work with large data sets. “*Reducing* data serves analysts’ need for efficient representations, especially of large volumes of data” (emphasis in original) (p. 85).
5. *Inferring*: Allows researchers to utilize analytical constructs and presuppositions, and develop, through evidence and inferences, their reading of the texts. “Bridges the gaps between descriptive accounts of text and what they mean, refer to, entail, provoke or cause. It points out the unobserved phenomena in context of interest to an analysts” (p. 85-86)
6. *Narrating*: This is basically a results section, and aims to make results understandable. “*Narrating* the answers to content analysts’ questions amounts to the researchers making their results comprehensible to others” (p. 86).

DATA COLLECTION

Newspaper articles covering the 1984, 2000, and 2008 Olympic Games were collected from nine newspapers in three separate countries: the United States, Australia, and the People’s Republic of China—three from each country. Each newspaper was printed in English and selected from countries that hosted the Olympics during the selected years. This was done to control for any potential “hosting” effect—i.e., if hosting the Olympics impacted the globalization discourse within newspaper coverage. It was believed that newspapers from host cities/nations would have more Olympics-related articles, and that this would increase the potential for articles discussing the dimensions of the globalization of sport. The newspapers examined were the *Los Angeles Times*, *New York Times*, *Washington Post*, *Sydney Morning Herald*, *The Australian*, *Courier Mail*, *South China Morning Post*, *China Daily (North American Edition)*, and *Xinhua News*

Agency. It should be noted that *Xinhua News Agency* is not a newspaper *per se*; it is, rather, the official press agency of the People's Republic of China. It owns more than 20 newspapers, publishes in eight languages, maintains an online presence in six languages, and supplies wire stories to foreign newspapers. To be clear, *Xinhua News Agency*, while operating partly as a propaganda device for the Chinese Communist Party, is the most influential journalistic mechanism in China and newspapers all over China, and indeed the world, print its stories and press releases (Xin, 2012). As a result of its influence and availability in English for the three epochs under consideration, it was deemed essential to this research. It is impossible to robustly examine Chinese print journalism while excluding the *Xinhua News Agency*. It was treated like a traditional newspaper throughout this research.

Daily newspaper articles from three days prior, during, and three days after each Olympic Games were examined. For example, for the 1984 Los Angeles Games, newspapers from July 25, 1984 – August 15, 1984 (22 days) were examined. This same process was repeated for the 2000 Sydney Olympics (September 12, 2000 – October 4, 2000 [23 days]) and the 2008 Beijing Olympics (August 5, 2008 – August 27, 2008 [23 days]). Articles regarding the Olympics were subject to coding via standard code sheets (See Appendix E). The frequencies of globalization articles, the article type, the dimension of globalization being discussed (i.e., economic, cultural, political, and/or ecological), the number of sources quoted, the sources' affiliation, and the story themes were recorded.

Data were collected through the examination of microfilm and the utilization of

three different electronic newspaper databases (depositories): LexisNexis, Factiva, and Proquest. Eight of the nine newspapers from 1984 were obtained through microfilm and read “cover to cover”. Every page and section of these newspapers were read to determine if articles discussed any dimensions of globalization. Since “globalization” was not a highly used term in 1984, it was deemed prudent to examine every page of these newspapers. The only exception was the *Xinhua News Agency*. LexisNexis was used to gather articles from the agency, which were obtained after searching with the terms “olympic” and “Olympics”. These articles were read to determine whether they were related to globalization.

Three different electronic newspapers databases were used because no single database contained all nine newspapers for the dates under examination. Table 13 indicates the source, dates of collection, and how data were collected. Initially the terms “olympic” and/or “Olympics” were searched in concert to identify relevant articles. However, this produced a tremendous number of articles (i.e., more than 23,000), so to narrow the range of articles under examination and obtain a more complete picture of how each newspaper was specifically approaching the globalization of sport discourse, the search terms were changed to “globalization” or “globalisation” and “olympic” or “Olympics”. So, articles under examination had to contain “globalization” or “globalisation” and “olympic” or “Olympics”. This greatly reduced the number of articles and ensured that all articles mentioning globalization and related to the Olympic Games would be analyzed. Changing the search term is methodologically sound since the term “globalization” had been well established by 2000, and was no longer an emerging

term as it was in 1984. After the articles were obtained each was read to determine if it actually discussed globalization and the Olympics. Articles that used the terms “Olympics” as hyperbole, simile, or a descriptor of any kind were also removed. Examples include phrases such as the “moral Olympics”, the “Olympics of business”, the “Olympics of the world’s stock exchanges”, etc. These articles were coded only if they discussed or commented upon sport or the actual Olympic Games.

Table 13: Data Collection: Dates and Techniques

Newspaper	7/25/84 – 8/15/84	9/12/00 – 10/4/00	8/5/08 – 8/27/08
<i>New York Times</i>	MF	FA	FA
<i>Los Angeles Times</i>	MF	PQ	PQ
<i>Washington Post</i>	MF	FA	FA
<i>The Australian</i>	MF	FA	FA
<i>Courier Mail</i>	MF	LN	LN
<i>Sydney Morning Herald</i>	MF	FA	FA
<i>South China Morning Post</i>	MF	FA	FA
<i>China Daily</i>	MF	FA	FA
<i>Xinhua News Agency</i>	LN	FA	FA

Note: MF = microfilm, LN = LexisNexis, FA = Factiva, and PQ = Proquest.

DATA ANALYSIS

A coding sheet was developed to document both quantitative and qualitative data for each article (See Appendix E). Categories and codes were developed for each quantitative aspect of interest: globalization dimension, story type, number of sources quoted, and source affiliation. Descriptive statistics were developed for each article and each category. It should also be noted that the globalization dimension category was not exclusive, since multiple dimensions of globalization can be discussed at once and the lines between the dimensions are not concrete—meaning, for example, it was possible to

code an article as discussing both political and economic globalization or ecological and cultural and so on and so forth. The categories were coded as follows:

1. If the article discusses globalization, then what dimension or dimensions is it discussing: economic, cultural, political, and/or ecological?
2. What type of article is it: news, feature, opinion, or sport/athlete story?
3. How many sources were quoted? What was their affiliation?

Qualitative data for each article came from the question: “What is the article’s topic(s)/theme(s)?” Excerpts that supported these themes were recorded and, when appropriate, presented (in Chapter 4) as supporting evidence. As can be seen from the guiding questions, this approach allowed the coder to record multiple themes for a single article. The rationale behind this turns on the fact that one article can have multiple themes, and ranking one as a “primary” theme could exclude useful and relevant data.

This type of discourse analysis—because it is document-based—requires significant coding and recoding until the findings—rooted in the data—emerge (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Once all the articles within one games were collected an open or initial coding process (Glaser, 1978) was conducted. This procedure consisted of developing inductive identification of substantive codes to designate what is occurring within the data (Fontana & Frey, 2005). Glaser (1978) stated that open coding is finished when no new categories (aka codes) are identified. The next step was axial coding, which clustered the initial codes into larger abstract categories. Axial coding helped to sort, synthesize, and organize large amounts of data and reassemble them into more workable units (Creswell, 1998). Finally, theoretical coding was carried out to form connections

between the data and theory (Glaser, 1978). It is paramount that the theoretical codes, as the foundation for theoretical findings, emerge from the data and not extraneous sources (Glaser, 1998).

DATA TRUSTWORTHINESS

Data trustworthiness needs to be established through inter-coder reliability, intra-coder reliability, and triangulation. Goetz and LeCompte (1984) defined triangulation as “a process of using multiple perceptions to clarify meaning, verify the repeatability of an observation or interpretation” (p. 79). Triangulation and reliability were established through the use of an external qualified qualitative coder who used the coding sheet to code randomly selected articles from each of the nine newspapers in each Olympic Games and compared them to the researcher’s original coding. This process allowed the primary researcher to discuss, confirm, and amend, when needed, interpretations and findings.

Merrigan and Huston (2009) state that content analysis results “depend heavily on measurement reliability, the consistency with which messages have been unitized and categorized” (p. 158). Reinard (2008) states that inter-coder reliability is “determining the consistency of different raters who respond to the same events by using some sort of a check list” (p. 120). Inter-coder reliability simply measures the degree of agreement between coders. Intra-coder reliability is a way for a coder to check and gain confidence in his or her interpretations, as it requires the same coder coding the same data using the same coding sheets at least 24 hours apart (Hardin & Hardin, 2005). The idea is to check

coding to make sure a day's events or bias did not skew the coding. Holsti's (1969) reliability formula, which calculates the degree and intensity of agreement between two coders, was used to test coder reliability. By treating the same coder as coder 1 and coder 2 this formula can also be used to determine intra-coder reliability. This method calculates the degree of agreement between two coders. Holsti's formula is: $2M / (N1+N2)$

Where:

M = number of coding decision on which the two coders agree

N1 = number of coding decisions made by coder 1

N2 = number of coding decisions made by coder 2

To determine intra-coder reliability three articles from each newspaper ($n = 27$) were randomly selected and coded twice—48 hours apart. Using Holsti's reliability formula an agreement rate of greater than 95% was confirmed. Then the same 27 articles were distributed to a second coder to determine inter-coder reliability. The research's purpose, the dimensions of globalization, and the coding sheet were explained to the second coder prior to coding. Each coder used the code sheet to analyze and code the same articles in separate settings. Then the codes sheets and emergent themes were compared and discussed. This produced an agreement rate greater than 94%. The "Notes" section of the coding sheets were not compared and omitted from the reliability calculations. This was done because this section was intended for general notes and to serve as a clearinghouse for a coder's questions, concerns, and comments.

RESEARCH LIMITATIONS

This study is limited in a number of ways. First, the researcher's lack of fluency in the Chinese language and its many dialectics forced the use of Chinese newspapers that were published in the English language. This has potential to skew the entire Chinese sample, as it is entirely possible that these newspapers present information in a fashion that is more acceptable for their English language consumers. In addition, these newspapers may not cover stories they deem unimportant or uninteresting to their English-language readership. Plus, given the Chinese government's strict control of the media and mediated messages, it is entirely possible that the stories presented in the English language newspapers are not consistent or representative of the articles in the Chinese language newspapers. This was a severe limitation, and this study could be greatly improved through the assistance of a co-researcher who spoke and read Chinese as his or her first language.

The second limitation flows from data obtainment issues. First, the researcher's inability to obtain two issues—August 4, 1984 and August 9, 1984—of the *Courier Mail*, as they were not included in the microfilm and additional attempts (i.e., reviewing other microfilm rolls and emailing the newspaper itself) to obtain these issues proved unsuccessful. However, the omitted issues were not considered to be a major limitation. Having to use different databases, since they all have different search algorithms and functions, was also considered a limitation. One potential byproduct of these databases “searching” differently is that the searches may produce different results. To help control for this, the same database, Factiva, was used whenever possible. However, this was not

always the case. For example, *Los Angeles Times* articles were only obtained through Proquest, because the University of Texas's Factiva license does not have access to the *Los Angeles Times*'s archive. The study could have been strengthened from an analysis of newspapers (and the dates) that were contained in all one database. It is difficult to approximate how the database's search function impacted the results.

Finally, and a limitation for all content and discourse analyses, is the "frame problem" (Gee, 2011; Gee & Handford, 2012). Gee (2011) 'formally' describes the frame problem as:

Any aspect of context can affect the meaning of an utterance. Context, however, is indefinitely large, ranging from local matters like positioning of bodies and eye gaze, through people's beliefs and previous interactions, to historical, institutional, and culture settings. No matter how much of the context we have considered in offering an interpretation of an utterance, there is always the possibility of considering other and additional aspects of the context, and these new considerations may change how we interpret the utterance. (p. 29)

In essence, the frame problem represents context's infinite nature, the inability to account for all contexts in a given discourse, and, especially in historical investigations, the attrition of context. History has a way of evaporating context and boiling events and phenomena down to the "essentials". However, the essentials could be reductive and limiting, and this in turn could spur misconceived interpretations and understandings. Using newspapers in a limited time span (especially foreign newspapers) further exacerbates the frame problem because multiple contexts are unknown and ambiguous.

The threat is always that new context could arise or be uncovered and that this could change understandings and alter conclusions. Therefore, the questions that any

discourse analysts must ask are: How much context should be taken into account? Are the ‘right’ contexts being considered? How should considerations of context be limited? The only way to solve the frame problem is to make “judgments about how much context is relevant” (Gee, 2011, p. 32) and add context when things are unclear. While seemingly disastrous for an academic methodology, if thought about from a macro perspective, this is exactly what people do in their everyday lives and communications. To borrow an example from Gee (2011), if one says “Please bring me something to clean up the coffee”—because coffee can be liquid or solid—the other will have to ask for more context, “Do you need a broom or mop?” So while discourse analysts cannot account for all contexts, they can make literature-directed judgments grounded in theory and previous experiences and determine relevance. However, academic research demands more rigor than everyday life, and as Gee (2011) states, discourse analysts always must “be willing to push context a bit further than we would in everyday life to see if we can falsify our claims about meaning” (p. 32). This limitation was taken into consideration throughout this research, and it is understood that the introduction of additional or omitted context could alter the results, findings, and implications presented in the following chapters. It is believed that a collaborative approach with co-researchers from China and Australia would have bolstered this study as it could have introduced national context that remains invisible to foreign eyes. Future attempts to conduct discourse analyses with data from multiple nation-states would be improved through the incorporation of a diverse, multidisciplinary team (representing each nation-state in consideration) that could robustly consider broader context (i.e., historical and academic).

Chapter 4: Results and Discussion

The results and discussion chapter is divided into four separate sections. These sections present research results and interpretations. The interpretations are designed to explain the results and highlight unexpected outcomes. The first three sections present results from each Olympic Games' (i.e., 1984, 2000, 2008) newspaper coverage. All three start with a "snapshot" of that year's Olympic Games. This snapshot presents selected facts and characteristics that are relevant to each of the games. It is intended to orientate the reader to the games and provide pertinent context. Context is critical to a discourse's evolution, so it is worthwhile to offer select context when presenting the results. Acknowledging the "frame problem" (Gee, 2011; Gee & Handford, 2012), this snapshot is far from exhaustive, but provides some important information and newsworthy issues that surrounded each of the games. For example, the snapshot for the 2008 Beijing Games includes that event's motto, "One world, One dream". This critical information reflects China's recognition of globalization and its global consciousness, while foreshadowing China's desire to shed isolationist ideologies and participate in the dimensions of globalization, especially economic globalization.

Following the "snapshot", qualitative results that emerged from the articles explicitly mentioning the Olympics and globalisation/globalization are presented. All the newspaper articles from an individual Olympic year combine to make the dataset from which each Olympic year's qualitative results emerged (Krippendorf, 2013). The first section, the 1984 Summer Games: The Games of the XXIII Olympiad, offers descriptive data on the number of issues and articles that were examined via microfilm from each

newspaper. However, it does not present any quantitative data relating to globalization because the term globalization was not found in any newspaper articles, and making *ex post facto* judgments regarding what the author “meant to say” or “would have said” if they knew the terminology is highly problematic and exceptionally unverifiable.

The second and third sections present themes related to the globalization of sport discourse. The thematic qualitative results are intended to provide evidence of how globalization was being approached and presented within the sport discourse. The qualitative results are interpreted and discussed as they are presented. After the qualitative results, quantitative data on the number of articles from each newspaper, story type, source affiliation/profession, and dimensions of globalization discussed are presented. The quantitative results are interpreted and discussed as they are offered. Further, when appropriate, the quantitative results are triangulated with the qualitative results to evaluate result consistency and ensure trustworthiness. The final section, drawing from the previous three previous, presents a comprehensive overview of the aggregated quantitative data and addresses the three research questions directing this dissertation.

1984 SUMMER OLYMPICS: THE GAMES OF THE XXIII OLYMPIAD

Snapshot

The Facts (IOC, 1985):

- Dates: July 28, 1984 – August 12, 1984
- Location: Los Angeles, CA, USA
- Nations Participating: 140
- Athletes Participating: 6,829 (5,263 men and 1,566 women)
- Events: 221 events in 21 different sports
- Volunteers 28,742
- Media 9,190 media (4,327 written press, 4,863 broadcasters)
- Officially Opened by President Ronald Reagan

Costs (IOC, 1985):

- Total Cost: \$413 million
- Taxpayer Contribution: \$75 million
- Outcome: \$250 million profit

Medal Counts Top 5 Countries: Gold, Silver, Bronze, Total (IOC, 1985)

- **United States: Gold: 83; Silver: 61; Bronze: 30; Total: 174 (host nation)**
- Romania: Gold: 20; Silver: 16; Bronze: 17; Total: 53
- West Germany: Gold: 17; Silver: 19; Bronze: 23; Total: 59
- China: Gold: 15; Silver: 8; Bronze: 9; Total: 32
- Italy: Gold: 14; Silver: 6; Bronze: 12; Total: 32

Influencing Context—Major Issues and Stories

- Los Angeles was the only city to bid, and the Olympics returned to the United States for the first time since the 1932 Summer Olympics that were also in Los Angeles.
- Cold War relations between the United States and the Soviet Union—a bipolar world.
- The Soviet Union-led boycott of the 1984 Los Angeles Games was a response to the 1980 US-led boycott of the 1980 Moscow Games.
- The commercialization of the Games—significant involvement of the corporate sponsors in the planning, financing, and presentation of the games.
- Use of exclusive television rights. ABC paid \$225 million for 180 hours of televisions, up from \$87 million in 1980. An estimated 2.5 billion people watched the games on television.

Results: 1984 Los Angeles Summer Olympics

Newspaper articles for the 1984 Olympic Games were obtained by reading newspapers ‘cover to cover’ via microfilm. The dates covered were July 25, 1984 to August 15, 1984. Every newspaper did not have the same number of issues as three newspapers (*Sydney Morning Herald*, *Courier Mail*, and *China Daily*) did not publish papers on Sundays, one newspaper (*The Australian*) published a weekend edition, and the microfilm for the *Courier Mail* was missing two issues (July 4, 1984 and July 9, 1984). A total of 184 newspapers were analyzed, and these were used as the dataset for the 1984 Los Angeles Summer Olympics Games (See Table 14). As the newspapers were read, any article that mentioned the Olympics was saved. In total, 4,998 articles mentioning the term “Olympics” were discovered. These articles made up the 1984 dataset.

Table 14: 1984 Data: Number of Issues and Articles

July 25, 1984 – August, 15 1984		
Newspaper Name	Number of Issues	Number of Articles with “Olympics”
New York Times	22	530
Los Angeles Times	22	1,620
Washington Post	22	537
The Australian¹	19	306
Courier Mail²	17	383
Sydney Morning Herald	19	292
South China Morning Post³	22	511
China Daily³	19	147
Xinhua News	22	672
Total	184	4,998

¹ Did not publish a Sunday edition and two issues were unobtainable

² Published a weekend edition, *The Weekend Australian*

³ Did not publish a Sunday edition

The first and most significant finding from these data was that the term “globalization” or “globalisation” was not used a single time in any of the 4,998 articles within the 184 newspapers. This finding was somewhat surprising as Levitt’s (1983) influential article had been published for more than a year, the term was starting to experience increased, albeit still limited, academic attention, and, as NGram data indicates, the term was beginning to appear in more and more books (See Appendix A). In short, it was believed that the term “globalization” would be found in the dataset. However, this simply was not the case. While disappointing, the absence of the term “globalization” also had academic worth and merit, as this finding clearly demonstrated that the term “globalization” and the budding globalization discourse had not yet entered the mainstream sport media’s lexicon.

While journalists discussed issues of international relations, Olympic boycotts, transnational corporate sponsorships, the Cold War, technological advancements, transportation, and cultural differences, they did not do it through globalization theory or features of globalization. These issues were often discussed in isolation and not linked to global macro-themes or what is now commonly referred to as globalization or dimensions of globalization. The one exception to this trend was international relations and the Cold War’s omnipresence and global saturation. Journalists repeatedly linked their stories of the 1980 and 1984 Olympic boycotts, rejection of visitor visas (i.e., not allowing foreign journalists in the United States), the threat of Olympic terrorism, China’s return to the Olympics, and Yugoslavia’s and Romania’s (both socialist countries) attendance to the Cold War and international relations. Given that these Olympic Games were occurring

during a period of reinvigorated Cold War tensions, sometimes called the second Cold War (Halliday, 1983), it was not surprising to see journalists link events to Cold War tensions and the relations between its principle actors, namely the United States and the Soviet Union.

Further, this finding provides evidence that can be use in a timeframe documenting the evolution and maturation of globalization within the mainstream press. For instance, it clearly demonstrates that the globalization within the sport discourse had yet to emerge in the mainstream. It also helps demonstrate that while issues that today would fall under the globalization umbrella were discussed, they were done so in different terms and within different contexts. Equally important, it reaffirms the idea that language, discourse, and truth are fluid entities that evolve alongside society—making, especially when analyzing discourse, a concept/term’s origin, lineage, and maturation particularly important features. In other words, it is worthwhile to know when new language (i.e., terms) emerged, where it emerged, what it emerged from, and what that new language supplanted or was expected to supplant. Finally, future researchers interested in globalization of sport discourse can incorporate this finding and construct future experimental designs that showcase an evidence-based starting point.

2000 SUMMER OLYMPICS: THE GAMES OF THE XXVII OLYMPIAD

Snapshot

The Facts (IOC, 2000):

- Dates: September 15, 2000 – October 1, 2000
- Location: Sydney, New South Wales, Australia
- Nations Participating: 199 NOCs (plus four individual athletes)
- Athletes Participating: 10,651 (6,582 men and 4,069 women)
- Events: 300 events in 28 different sports
- Volunteers 46,967
- Media 16,033 (5,298 written press, 10,735 broadcasters)
- Officially Opened by Governor-General Sir William Deane
- Motto: Share the Spirit

Costs (IOC, 2000):

- Total Cost: AUD\$6.6 billion
- Taxpayer Contribution: AUD\$1.7 - \$2.4 billion
- Outcome: AUD\$2.1 billion loss

Medal Counts Top 5 Countries: Gold, Silver, Bronze, Total (IOC, 2000)

- United States: Gold: 37; Silver: 24; Bronze: 32; Total: 93
- Russia: Gold: 32; Silver: 28; Bronze: 29; Total: 89
- China: Gold: 28; Silver: 16; Bronze: 14; Total: 58
- **Australia: Gold: 16; Silver: 25; Bronze: 17; Total: 58 (host nation)**
- Germany: Gold: 13; Silver: 17; Bronze: 26; Total: 56

Influencing Context—Major Issues and Stories

- At the turn of the new millennium the world was in a boom cycle of global economics. This was the golden age of neoliberalism and hyper-globalists.
- There was a significant use of emergent communication, media, and computer-based technologies.
- Environmentalism, “green” ideologies, and sustainability were emerging as global concerns and a concern of sport.
- The Sydney Games marked 100 years of women’s participation.
- The final Olympics Games of Juan Antonio Samaranch’s IOC presidency.
- This was the last Olympic Games before the September 11th attacks.
- The World Economic Forum, which anti-globalization activists heavily protested, was held in Melbourne two days before the Olympic Games commenced.
- During the games more than 16,000 broadcasters and journalists were present in Sydney, an estimated 3.8 billion watched the games.

Thematic Results: 2000 Sydney Olympic Games

The following section presents the qualitative results from the 41 newspaper articles in the 2000 dataset that mentioned both search terms. As previously discussed, presenting relevant context is crucial to the interpretation of discourse and historical inquiries, and the events prior to the 2000 Sydney Olympic Games played a major role in the nine newspapers' (especially the Australian newspapers) coverage and discussions pertaining to the globalization of sport. First and foremost, the 2000 World Economic Forum was held two days before the start of the Olympic Games, and this meeting on world economic and international trade was heavily protested. This protest became to be known as the S11 protests. These protests centered on globalization, especially economic globalization, and eventually led to an altercation with a large police force. This event, its subject matter, and the looming Olympic Games—a well-recognized global event that inspires global considerations—undoubtedly made globalization, debates about globalization, and globalization's connection to sport more topical and prominent than they may have been without the protests. This was apparent in Prime Minister John Howard's address to the World Economic Forum where he compared the Olympics to globalization:

It's interesting the Olympic analogy holds true particularly when considering the outcomes desired from globalisation. It is no coincidence that the great advancements in human sporting accomplishment have only been made since the Olympics facilitated international competition... In sport, as with economies, open international competition continuously lifts the standards for everyone. And just as sport has grown naturally from spontaneous local contests into highly organised international events, globalisation is simply an extension of the tendency throughout human history towards increasing specialisation and trade. (p. 11)

Understanding this context and using it as a backdrop to the qualitative data analysis, two themes related to the globalization within the sport discourse emerged: 1) misunderstanding globalization is problematic; and 2) globalization is primarily an economic phenomenon.

Misunderstanding Globalization is Problematic

The first theme to emerge was that a misunderstanding of globalization creates problems. A number of articles and letters to the editor suggest that the lack of definitional agreement regarding the subject causes confusion and anger, and made it difficult for people to make decisions about globalization. Cotter's (2000) well-written letter to the editor perfectly captures the issues with misunderstanding and definitional ambiguity.

Globalisation is a contentious word at the moment. Apparently, people are wholeheartedly for or against it. Defining globalisation seems to be difficult because people use the term in different ways at different times, creating confusion about what exactly they are for and what they are against. For example, in light of Prime Minister John Howard's public embrace of globalisation, his spurning of the United Nations seems odd. What organisation is more in favour of globalisation than the UN? There seem to be at least two competing brands of globalisation. The purely economic globalisation, embodied by the World Trade Organisation and the World Economic Forum, is the brand that Howard buys. Howard rejects the other brand, which goes beyond economics to include human rights and the environment and is partly, albeit imperfectly, embodied by the UN. The WEF public relations spin further confused the issue by redefining the term in order to isolate protesters. Suddenly, globalisation was not about economics at all but was reinterpreted to mean a simple acknowledgment of the fact that people from all over the world now relate to one another. That was a misrepresentation of the protests that were aimed at the first brand of globalisation, which is defined by the increasing control of world affairs by multinational corporations. Globalisation isn't about the fact that people all over the world relate but, rather, how they are

going to do so. This is what the conflicts in Seattle, Washington and Melbourne have been about. (p. 16)

Carlton's (2000) article, "From Dirt To Diamonds Not Bad For Convict Stock", also describes how a misunderstanding globalization obstructs one's ability to make decisions about globalization processes. Moreover, the passage shows that a poor conceptualization of globalization makes it difficult to know what the future under globalization will involve.

This shoving and shouting about globalisation is all very well, and even quite exciting when the blood flows, but I wish somebody would explain exactly what globalisation is. Then I might begin to think about whose side I am on, if that is what we are all expected to do. So far as I understand it, there are two possible outcomes: a) the planet and its peoples will be driven to the apocalypse by the manic greed of ruthless capitalism, or b) the planet and its peoples will find true happiness as free trade spreads its rewards still wider. (Carlton, 2000, p. 22)

An unidentified banker who attended the World Economic Forum expressed dissatisfaction with the term "globalization", claiming it did not capture what was really happening:

A leading Australian banker was flown across Melbourne by helicopter to attend a lunch at the WEF. "I was in the 'copter, sitting there thinking: 'Why the f... am I doing this?' I was flying over a violent mess created by a giant misunderstanding," he reflected. "I really think globalisation is an inappropriate term, you know. What is really going on is that in an age of instant communications there are no niches, no hiding places. And that has a lot of people worried. "The global challenge people face is competition. A lot of people are frightened by that because they fear they will be left behind. And I have lots of sympathy for that view because they may well be. "In the past we have been able to call on unique, national drivers to coalesce. You know, make change a national challenge, that sort of thing. No one has that luxury now. All the drivers are external, all to some degree out of our control. (Mitchell & Stevens, 2000)

Finally, in very succinct terms, Maiden (2000) describes some of the frustrations that both pro- and anti-globalization factions experience. He states, “Globalisation may be good but not only the protesters want its guidelines spelled out” (p. 20). The ambiguity and uncertainty surrounding globalization is viewed as a significant finding as this ambiguity still exist today. It is clear that the lack of definitional agreement is preventing a consistent discourse.

Globalization is Primarily an Economic Process

While there were exceptions (e.g., Cotter, 2000), the articles (as well as the sources quoted) overwhelmingly presented and debated globalization as an economic process that championed free trade and open markets. When other dimensions of globalization were discussed they were often depicted as byproducts of economics or in terms that indicated a belief that globalization was, above all else, international trade and international market expansion. The following passages from a news article regarding the World Economic Forum protest and a letter to the editor provide good examples of how globalization was debated primarily through economic terms:

The US promotes it [globalization] when it preaches free-trade while protecting farmers with enormous subsidies. And the first-world promotes it through free-trade rules that would devastate third-world peasant economies. (Fist, 2000)

Have you noticed that the people insisting that globalisation is going to be good for the poor, as well as the rich and powerful, are the rich and powerful? (Mack, 2000, p. 16)

Debating and discussing globalization in economic terms came from both supporters and detractors of globalization. The first passage comes from an article that

covered the World Economic Forum and Prime Minister John Howard's remarks. Howard was a staunch supporter of economic globalization. The second excerpt presents the argument of Julian Disney, the Australian President of the International Council on Social Welfare. While the two disagreed on the merits of globalization, they appear to have believed that economics was the field through which the debate should take place.

Meanwhile at the World Economic Forum last night, Prime Minister John Howard used his speech to launch a strong defence of globalisation. He said the Olympic Games were an example of the benefits of globalisation and should inspire the world to even greater trade liberalisation. Mr Howard branded S11 protesters surrounding Crown Casino "misguided and ill-informed", saying they were hurting the very people they claimed to represent: the world's poor and disadvantaged. He said globalisation was the only way forward for poor and rich nations alike. "If the opportunities of globalisation are taken up, they can lead to more jobs, more investment and ultimately stronger sustainable economic growth," he said. (Dickins, 2000, p. 2)

Julian Disney, the Australian president of the International Council on Social Welfare told the delegates that "many of the self-styled advocates of globalisation are vehemently anti-globalisation on many issues ... for them a crucial attraction of recent trends in globalisation is that corporate activities, by becoming increasingly international, are freer from the constraints of democracy, rule of law and fairness. They do not want globalisation of taxation, anti-monopoly regimes, labour rights, human rights or codes of corporate.

There was nobody on the WEF side who stood up and advocated the position that Disney ascribed to many members of the globalisation movement, although such opportunists do exist.

They would be in the minority, like those at the other extreme who totally oppose globalisation.

A more formidable group inside the WEF will argue that critics such as Disney fail to understand that the imposition of homogenous regulatory standards on the global system would shackle it, by eliminating the arbitrages that exist between countries with different standards of regulation and supervision, and different levels of infrastructure support.

In their opinion, companies locating in countries with relatively lower regulatory oversight or less developed infrastructure are energising one of the key long-term drivers of globalisation, and of economic growth.

And in their laissez-faire world, companies that move or relocate production capacity are in effect trading system quality and security for lower cost inputs. In some cases that will make sense, in other cases it will not. The result may be regional and national specialisation, similar to that which now appears to be emerging in financial markets.

The globalisation bulls would finally argue that the process is demonstrably good, because it shifts value and wealth from well-developed nations to lesser developed ones, ultimately re-creating the kind of economic miracle that has made the Asian tigers the exemplars of global capitalism despite their setback in the 1997-98 economic crisis. (Maiden, 2000, p. 20)

The two themes indicate that globalization within the sport discourse was still evolving. These themes provide good evidence of the dynamic nature of discourse and of the power of ambiguity and confusion. The World Economic Forum protests demonstrated that people were willing to engage in violent altercations with law enforcement officials over the debate about globalization even though it was clear that not everyone understood the term or its set of processes (Steger, 2009). The two themes taken together demonstrated that poor understanding of understanding globalization hampered robust considerations and restricted the debate to economic terms. In all, these findings suggest that globalization within the sport discourse was still maturing.

Descriptive Statistics: 2000 Data

Tables 15-18 display the descriptive statistics for the articles and sources contained within the 2000 Sydney Summer Olympic Games dataset. Table 15 shows that after three rounds of refining the search criteria—two through electronic databases and one through manual coding—the number of articles was reduced from 10,085 to 41. Not surprisingly, Table 15 also demonstrates that the 2000 Summer Games received the most attention from the Australian press. The three Australian newspapers contained 5,776 articles containing the word “olympic” or “Olympics”, which was more than 1,400 more articles than the American (N = 2451) and Chinese (N = 1858) press combined. The Australian coverage also produced more articles about the Olympics and globalization (N = 33) than the American (N = 6) and Chinese (N = 2) presses. This was also not a surprising result as the three-day 2000 World Economic Forum in Melbourne, which took place two days before the Olympic Games started, resulted in the S11 protest mentioned above. This means that Australian citizens and in the Australian newspapers were discussing issues of globalization even before the games had started.

The most significant finding may be that among the articles that contained the words “olympic” or “Olympics” or “globalization”, relatively few mentioned both search terms in any meaningful way. For instance, the *Xinhua News* produced 1,734 articles with the word “olympic” or “Olympics” and 97 articles that mentioned globalization, but only one article contained both terms. Overall, of the 10,085 articles that mentioned the words “olympic” or “Olympics” only 41 also contained and discussed globalization; this is a percentage of 0.41 ($\% = [(41/10,085)*100]$).

This general pattern of not linking globalization to the Olympics can be seen in all eight relevant newspapers (the *China Daily* did not have any articles) with the Australian newspapers connecting the two the most often. The descriptive statistics suggest that either journalists did not understand the connections between globalization and the global sport mega-event, were victims of the definitional ambiguity endemic to globalization discourse which rendered the concept problematic and non-usable, had a positive view of the Olympic Games (i.e., that somehow the Olympic Games were exempt from globalization processes), or that the globalization discourse within the mainstream media had yet to sophisticate. These findings are consistent with the qualitative results that journalists are unclear on the definition of globalization and that they often accept and utilize a narrow view of globalization—i.e., view the concept primarily from economic perspectives

These results suggest that regardless of the nation-state, journalists covering the 2000 Sydney Olympic Games did not view the sport industry, sport mega-events, or sport (as a cultural artifact) as a product or source of globalization (Eitzen, 2012) that could be threatened or changed through globalization processes. In sum, it is highly doubtful that this coverage, when it was published, created a more informed readership or had any significant impact on the globalization of sport discourse.

Table 15: 2000 Data: Number of Articles

September 12, 2000 – October 4, 2000				
Search Terms	Olympic or Olympics	Globaliz/sation	Olympic + Globaliz/sation	Olympic + Globaliz/sation¹
New York Times	923	33	3	3
Los Angeles Times	1006	22	2	2
Washington Post	522	16	1	1
The Australian	1,741	59	20	20
Courier Mail	2,030	31	13	8
Sydney Morning Herald	2,005	46	15	5
South China Morning Post	44	22	1	1
China Daily	80	14	0	0
Xinhua News	1,734	97	2	1
Total	10,085	340	57	41

¹ This column represents the actual number of articles reviewed and coded. This number reflects the removal of articles that used the term Olympics as hyperbole, simile, or as a descriptor of any kind. These are the articles that actually discuss globalization and the Olympic Games.

Table 16 shows the article type of each article that contained the words “olympic” or “Olympics” and “globalization” broken down by newspaper. More than half (54%) of the articles that contained both search terms were news articles (N = 22) while 39% were opinion articles (N = 16). Only two articles that contained both search terms were coded sport articles. It is not surprising that mainstream journalists neglected to connect sport (as an entity or industry) to globalization, given the relative lack of attention sport receives from scholars concerned with globalization (Giulianotti & Robertson, 2007).

Table 16: 2000 Data: Type of Article (N = 41)

September 12, 2000 – October 4, 2000					
Newspaper	News	Feature	Opinion	Sport/Athlete	Total
New York Times	2	1	0	0	3
Los Angeles Times	1	0	1	0	2
Washington Post	1	0	0	0	1
The Australian	9	0	9	2	20
Courier Mail	3	0	5 ¹	0	8 ¹
Sydney Morning Herald	4	0	1	0	5
South China Morning Post	1	0	0	0	1
China Daily	0	0	0	0	0
Xinhua News	1	0	0	0	1
Total	22	1	16	2	41 ¹

¹ Five letters to the editor that mentioned the Olympics and globaliz/sation are included in this number.

Table 17 shows the frequencies of the affiliations/professions of the sources quoted in the 26 articles (15 articles did not have a quoted source, $41 - 15 = 26$) that contained both search terms and had at least one quoted source. More than 55% (N = 38) of the sources quoted did not fall within one of the 16 predetermined categories. These sources included but were not limited to ‘person on the street interviews’, protesters, activists, service industry employees, bankers, business executives, and other journalists (both print and broadcast). Australian academics (N = 8) and Australian government officials (N = 7) were the preselected affiliations quoted the most often. This was not surprising considering that the Australian press produced most of the stories.

The most telling finding presented in Table 17 is the dearth of IOC and NOC officials quoted in these articles. Only one Australian Olympic Committee official was quoted. This finding indicates that not only were journalists not linking the Olympic

Games to globalization, but when they did they were not interviewing sources within the sports industry. This finding suggests that these journalists did not view the IOC and NOCs as knowledgeable about or associated with globalization, and, as a result, it is unclear how individual members or their organizations viewed globalization processes and/or its impacts. This was a critical oversight and a missed opportunity to contribute to the globalization of sport discourse in regards to how these organizations viewed their global status and globalization processes in general.

Table 17: 2000 Data: Source Affiliation/Professions¹ (N = 69)

September 12, 2000 – October 4, 2000	
United States Academic	1
Australian Academic	8
Chinese Academic	0
Other Nation Academic	0
Coach	0
Athlete	2
Medical Professional	1
IOC Official	0
United States OC Official	0
Australian OC Official	1
Chinese OC Official	0
Law Enforcement Representative	5
Australian Government Official	7
U.S. Government Official	3
Chinese Government Official	0
Other Nation Government Official	3
All Others Sources	38
Total Number of Sources Quoted	69

¹ 15 articles (three news and 12 opinion) did not contain any sources.

Table 18 shows the frequencies of Steger's (2009) four dimensions of globalization in the 41 articles that contained both search terms. The dimensions of globalization coding was not exclusive because the globalization literature (e.g., Appaduria, 1990a, 1990b; Steger, 2009; Martell, 2010, etc.) maintains that distinctions between the dimensions of globalization are not explicit and that multiple dimensions of globalization can be discussed simultaneously. Therefore, the same articles could discuss multiple dimensions, and demanded to be coded as such. However, this does not imply that if an article contained multiple dimensions that they received equal space. In other words and as was often the scenario, articles would be primarily discussing economic globalization, but would, secondarily, discuss cultural and/or political globalization and then return to their economic focus. Ignoring the secondary globalization discussions could exclude important data, so coding procedures mandated that all discussions of the four dimensions of globalization be recorded. This methodological mandate somewhat skews the descriptive statistics, and to some extent contradicts the well-supported qualitative finding that journalists in the year 2000 (especially Australian journalists) took a narrow view of globalization and presented it primarily as an economic phenomenon without providing further explanation or description.

In total, the 41 articles discussed the economic dimension of globalization the most often ($N = 29$) with the cultural ($N = 21$) and political ($N = 21$) dimensions being discussed the second and third most often, respectively. The ecological dimension was discussed the least, with only four instances in total. This was a surprising finding as the Sydney Olympics 2000 Bid Ltd, a public-private consortium that developed Sydney's

Olympic bid, partnered with Greenpeace Australia and included environmental guidelines in the bid—a decision that was so innovative at the time that many believed that it was the differentiating factor contributing to the city’s eventual selection (Kearins & Pavlovich, 2002).

Table 18: 2000 Data: Frequency of Globalization Dimensions Discussed

September 12, 2000 – October 4, 2000					
		Dimensions of Globalization			
Newspaper	Numbers of Articles	Economic	Cultural	Political	Ecological
New York Times	3	3	2	3	1
Los Angeles Times	2	2	1	1	0
Washington Post	1	0	1	1	0
The Australian	20	11	12	8	0
Courier Mail	8 ¹	7	2	4	3
Sydney Morning Herald	5	4	3	4	0
South China Morning Post	1	1	0	0	0
China Daily	0	0	0	0	0
Xinhua News	1	1	0	0	0
Total	41 ¹	29	21	21	4

¹ Five letters to the editor that mentioned the Olympics and globaliz/sation are included in this number.

2008 SUMMER OLYMPICS: THE GAMES OF THE XXIX OLYMPIAD

Snapshot

The Facts:

- Dates: August 8, 2008 – August 24, 2008
- Location: Beijing, China
- Nations Participating: 204 NOCs
- Athletes Participating: 10,942 (6,305 men and 4,637 women)
- Events: 302 events in different 28 sports
- Volunteers: 100,000 (70,000 Olympic Games, 30,000 Paralympic Games)
- Media: 24,562 accredited media representing 159 countries
- Officially Opened by President Hu Jintao
- Motto: One World, One Dream

Costs (IOC, 2008):

- Total Cost: \$44 billion
- Taxpayer Contribution: N/A
- Outcome: \$146 million profit

Medal Counts Top 5 Countries: Gold, Silver, Bronze, Total (IOC, 2008)

- **China: Gold: 51; Silver: 21; Bronze: 28; Total: 100 (host nation)**
- United States: Gold: 36; Silver: 38; Bronze: 36; Total: 110
- Russia: Gold: 23; Silver: 21; Bronze: 29; Total: 73
- Great Britain: Gold: 19; Silver: 13; Bronze: 15; Total: 47
- Germany: Gold: 16; Silver: 10; Bronze: 15; Total: 41

Influencing Context—Major Issues and Stories

- The Beijing Games was a “coming out” party for the People’s Republic of China. The event was used to show the world that China wanted to become and was becoming a global power.
- China’s abysmal human rights and environmental records were major topics leading up and during the games. Numerous groups called for boycotts citing such things as their relations with Tibet and Darfur.
- The 2008 Summer Games is the most watched event in human history, an estimated 4.7 billion people—nearly 70 percent of the human population—watched.
- In the lead up to the games, China was criticized for its relocation programs where hundreds of thousands of people were moved so land could be cleared for Olympic infrastructure and venues.
- NBC on various stations broadcasted more than 3,600 (1,400 on the TV networks and 2,200 online) hours of coverage of the 2008 Olympic Games.

Thematic Results: 2008 Beijing Olympic Games

The following section presents the qualitative results from the 27 newspaper articles in the 2008 dataset that mentioned both search terms. As was true for the 2000 qualitative results, the context surrounding the 2008 games had significant effects on the qualitative results. The most influential piece of context affecting the 2008 Beijing Olympics as it related to globalization was the host nation, itself. The 2008 Beijing Olympics represented China's "coming out party" (Yardley, 2005, p. 4; Lee, 2008, p. C1), and showcased the Chinese government's desire to demonstrate that it was a "world class power" that would "impress the world by any means necessary" (Lubrow, 2006, p. 68). China wanted to use the Olympic Games to demonstrate that it had changed and that it was ready to enter world stage as a leader—as an economic and cultural force. The government believed that hosting the Olympics allowed the host nation "to emphasize [its] claim to having a leading status, mission, and destiny in the world international order" (Roche, 2000, p. 10). Further, China could use the games to highlight its achievements (Beck & Bosshart, 2003) and, with the international spotlight, leverage the games to act as a "potent cultural resource with real implications for international relations and the domestic interests of nation-states" (Polumbaum, 2003, p. 57). China's stated objectives for hosting the games—to create "a New Beijing" and host "a Green Olympics, a High-tech Olympics, a People's Olympics" (Kolatch, 2006)—were meant to change the country's image and indicate its aspiration to shed its history of isolation, and become a true power on the global stage. Lee's (2008) *Los Angeles Times* article sums up this scenario:

The Beijing Olympics are seen by many as a coming-out party for the rising nation, just as the Tokyo (1964) and Seoul (1988) Games were for Japan and South Korea. More than for those countries, economic ascendance for China has come hand in hand with globalization and its opening up to the world. (p. C1)

Recognizing this context and using it as a guiding framework to the qualitative data analysis, two themes related to the globalization within the sport discourse emerged: 1) a nuanced understanding of globalization was present; and 2) the Olympics Games are a facilitator of globalization.

A Nuanced Understanding of Globalization

The first theme to emerge from the 2008 data was that articles presented globalization in a nuanced fashion. These articles suggested that journalists and their sources had a better understanding of the dimensions of globalization and their interplay. The articles often went beyond economic globalization and connected globalization to the arts (e.g., calligraphy and movies), cultural practices (e.g., body art and tattoos) and exchanges, and infrastructural processes (e.g., urbanization). Moreover, the *Xinhua News* and *China Daily* published interviews with leaders from foreign countries (e.g., Belgium, France, and Israel) who discussed globalization, politics, and the Olympics. This is not to say that some of these articles did not discuss economic globalization, as that was present in numerous articles, but it is to say that these articles suggested that the other dimensions of globalization were better understood. The following passages highlight this enhanced understanding of globalization and what appears to be an evolution in how people perceived globalization's impacts. It is evident from the following passages that people viewed globalization as much more than an economic process in 2008.

The first example of how authors and their sources exhibited a more nuanced understanding comes from an article, inspired by the opening ceremonies of the Olympic Games, that talked about the decline of the art of calligraphy. The author attributed its decline, at least in part, to globalization. This is a clear example of connecting art to globalization or the cultural dimension of globalization.

Calligraphy as means of communication has gradually lost its importance in Chinese daily life as more and more people turn to writing on computers. In an increasingly commercialized world, genuine practitioners of calligraphy as an art form are becoming more rare, even though the number of people claiming to be "calligraphers" is increasing. With the modernization and globalization of Chinese society, the practice of calligraphy as a philosophy and lifestyle is becoming less and less common. (Yingshi, 2008)

The next example comes from an article that talked about people getting tattoos during the Beijing Games, and the increased number of tattoo parlors and number of people getting tattoo in China. The article stated that tattoo parlors used to be rare in Beijing, but were quite common by 2008. The author attributed the rise and acceptance of tattoos to globalization. This is an example of linking changing cultural practices to globalization.

"Tattoos are a way for people to express their frustrations and hopes about life," Mr. Wang [tattoo shop employee] said. "Now is the time for Chinese to choose parts of global culture, and we don't want them to make mistakes," he added, alluding to the incorrect or meaningless Chinese characters frequently seen on the limbs of Westerners. Though globalization has increasingly homogenized body art, Mr. Wang said Chinese typically prefer black ink, while Westerners like brighter pigments. Some tattoo artists say traditional painting styles explain the difference. But Mr. Wang points to a simpler, more universal reason, which is vanity. "Black looks better on yellow skin," he said, "and color looks better on pink." (Levin, 2008, p. ST1)

Claiming that the world was in the age on globalization in 2008, the next example provides evidence of a perceived global consciousness that recognized an interconnectedness despite a person's race or culture. Increased global consciousness, a highly touted theoretical characteristic of globalization, is an indication that people believed globalization is a force for unity and cooperation.

In the age of globalization, links between residents of the global village have become ever more complicated and closer. For all their different races, nationalities and cultural backgrounds, people of the world share common aspirations for peace and development. (Beijing Olympics, a real experience, 2008)

In one of the few instance of hearing from a source from inside the Olympic organization, the Honorary Chairman of the China Olympic Committee, He Zhenliang, talked about the political power of the Olympics and how globalization was bringing people together. For him, globalization was tied to politics and international relations. This is a good example of the political dimension of globalization.

China has promised to the world that China would remain open to foreign media even after the Olympics. The Honorary Chairman of the China Olympic Committee, He Zhenliang, recalled the "Table Tennis Diplomacy" between China and the United States in 1971, which provided a good example of how sports could promote the diplomatic relationship.

He said the Beijing Olympics would again show sports' amazing strength in promoting the relationship between China and the world. "Sports was one of the earliest globalized areas. Through globalization, we shall be more tightly connected to the world," he said. (Scholar: Gathering, 2008)

In one of the *Xinhua News* articles that interviewed a foreign head of state, Belgium's Prime Minister Yves Leterme, talked about China's Olympic motto of "One

World, One Dream” and in a way that linked it to globalization. He explicitly mentioned thinking beyond the economic dimension of globalization.

Asked to comment on the Beijing Olympics slogan of One World, One Dream, Leterme said, "The Olympic Games are an exceptional event that is capable to link hearts and minds of all the people of the world." "One dream is the dream of the understanding between all the people. One world is globalization, not only in economic perspective, but also from the human point of view," he said. (Interview: Belgian PM says, 2008)

The final example indicating a more nuanced understanding of globalization came from a *China Daily* article that featured an interview with Israeli President Shimon Peres about the Olympics and the opening ceremonies. He called the ceremony “a story of globalization” and said that the Olympiad had shown that the world was one. Here Peres linked globalization to a unifying global force that stretched across the dimensions of globalization.

The opening ceremony was brilliant and majestic, as in the magic world. It is the greatest event in our history. Not only was it a brilliant performance, but also a story of globalization.... This Olympiad has showed that the world, as in the songs, is not divided into West and East, North and South, it is one world. And China has showed every country can do what it wants to do, and do it maybe better. This is also a great hope for people who believe in the future. (Xiaokun, 2008)

The 2008 data provide good examples of how authors’ and their sources’ conceptualizations of globalization have evolved since 2000. This data indicate that globalization within the sport discourse has become more sophisticated as people are connecting globalization to societal aspects beyond economics. The data indicate that people are starting to appreciate the multiple dimensions of globalization, and are willing

to engage globalization accordingly. This is in stark contrast to the 2000 data, as the economic dimension of globalization dominated those discussions.

Olympic Games are a Facilitator of Globalization

The second theme to emerge was that the Olympic Games were viewed or considered as a facilitator of globalization—meaning that winning the Olympic bid, preparing for the Olympics, and the Games themselves were seen as facilitators of globalization processes that could enhance global status, improve infrastructure, lower perceived risk, improve trade relations and, ultimately, increase a nation-state's power. The following passages provide evidence that authors and their sources considered the Olympic Games to be a facilitator of globalization.

The first example came from an interview with French President Nicolas Sarkozy, in which he asserted that the Olympics can play a role in globalization processes. He talked about how the Olympic Games facilitates international relations and enhances diplomatic ties.

The Games will enhance ties between people of different countries, and thus serves as an important step in the process of globalization, he [Nicolas Sarkozy] added.

The Olympic Games, a sports event itself, also offers a golden opportunity for people to communicate, Sarkozy said. He said he was delighted to have the opportunity to meet Chinese President Hu Jintao and Premier Wen Jiabao in Beijing to discuss several important issues and future cooperation, especially the 2008 Asia-Europe summit, to be held in China in October, and the EU-China summit, to be held in France this December. (Interview: Beijing Olympics, 2008)

The next example came from an article in which a Chinese academic, Hu Angang, spoke about the impacts of the Olympics on the Chinese people and China's international

relations. He posited that the Olympics would force Chinese people to become conscious of their behavior and treat foreigners with respect. He continued to say the Olympics would not only facilitate international legitimization, but it would allow China to learn about 'international practice' and global citizenry. To Hu, the Olympics facilitated both the political and cultural dimensions of globalization.

The gathering of foreign heads of state and elites for the Beijing Olympics could be taken as a sign of positive world attitudes toward China's development, said Tsinghua University professor Hu Angang on Thursday.

Chinese people have become conscious of their behavior in front of billions who will be watching TV, said Hu. "They are trying to improve themselves and the environment to show that China welcomes foreigners and Chinese are good-mannered and trustworthy."

He said if entering the World Trade Organization meant China had been fully connected to the world, hosting the Olympics would allow China to learn about "international practice" to a deeper and wider extent. (Scholar: Gathering, 2008)

The next example outlines how the Olympic Games facilitated cultural exchanges among Chinese regions and how that would eventually help open up a dialogue with Western civilizations. This passage indicates that the Olympics was a facilitator of the cultural dimension of globalization.

Increasingly aware of how it is seen by the outside world, China has adopted a long-term vision to host the Olympics as not only a sports gala but a feast for culture.

Exhibitions in the Capital Museum included, as many 3,000 cultural exchange activities involving almost all regions and continents are being staged in Beijing and its six Olympics co-host cities of Qingdao, Qinhuangdao, Tianjin, Shenyang, Hong Kong and Shanghai.... He [Yu Pei, director of the World History Studies of the Chinese Academy of Social Sciences] foresees an increasingly sweeping cultural blend to come

along with the summer Olympics, with the overture starting from China's opening-up and economic reform 30 years ago and the climax featuring a comprehensive dialogue between Chinese and Western civilizations. (China focus: Olympic flame, 2008).

The final example came from an article that talked about how the Olympics helped facilitate the infrastructural improvements in the city of Qingdao, and how these improvements made Qingdao into a globalized city.

The Olympics made Qingdao more globalized. Skyscrapers now stand in great numbers, while some 74 financial institutions from home and abroad, including the Bank of Korea and Standard Chartered Bank, are seeking their fortunes in the city.... The Olympics also provided the opportunity to upgrade the city's infrastructure. Qingdao was named “China's Excellent Business City” by the Chinese version of Fortune magazine in 2004 and 2005. It was listed as a “Golden City” for its sound investment environment by the World Bank in 2006. (Ruixue, 2008).

The two themes that emerged from the 2008 data indicate that how people thought about and conceptualized globalization changed dramatically in the eight years between the games. The 2008 themes demonstrate that the idea of globalization was still evolving and that authors and their sources were starting to think about globalization in more nuanced and complex ways.

Descriptive Statistics: 2008 Data

Tables 19-22 display the descriptive statistics for the articles and sources contained within the 2008 Beijing Summer Olympic Games dataset. Table 19 shows that after three rounds of refining the search criteria—two through electronic databases and one through manual coding—the number of articles was reduced from 13,032 to 27. Not surprisingly, Table 19 also demonstrates that the Chinese press, thanks in large part to the state run *Xinhua News Agency*, produced the most articles mentioning the Olympics. The

three Chinese newspapers published 7,872 articles with the word “olympic” or “Olympics”. This is 2,712 more articles than the United States’s newspapers (N = 2,336) and Australian (N = 2,824) newspapers published combined.

The Chinese newspapers (N = 15) also produced more articles with both search terms than the American (N = 9) and Australian (N = 3) newspapers combined. This is not surprising as the Communist Party of China via the Publicity Department of the Communist Party of China (CCPPD) has a long record of controlling and censoring the Chinese press (Brady, 2008). The CCPPD uses the press to disseminate information and spread positive propaganda regarding the ruling party and its political ambitions. The Communist Party of China uses its propaganda system to influence domestic and international public opinion and legitimize the government’s actions (Brady, 2008). The CCPPD’s efforts appeared to intensify prior, during, and after the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games as the *Xinhua News Agency* published more than 6,300 articles containing the search term “Olympic” and/or “Olympics”.

The most unexpected finding from this data was the number of articles that contained the words “olympic” or “Olympics” (N = 13,032) or globalization (N = 112) and the relatively few that mentioned both search terms in any meaningful way. For example, the three Chinese newspapers published 42 articles with the term “globalization”, but only 18 of them also discussed the Olympics. Overall, of the 13,032 articles that mentioned the word “olympic” or “Olympics” only 27 also contained and discussed globalization, this is a percentage of 0.21 ($\% = [(27/13,032)*100]$).

This general pattern of not linking globalization to the Olympics can be seen in all nine newspapers with the Chinese newspapers connecting the two terms the most often. This finding suggests that even though China's suspect international trade agreements and abysmal environmental record (both classic globalization issues) inspired protests and calls for an Olympic boycott (Cottrell & Nelson, 2011; Berg, Kessler, & Hunt, 2012), journalists choose not to discuss those issues within the sport discourse. The descriptive statistics further suggest that the mainstream media either positions the Olympic Games (and sport in general) outside the globalization discourse or that they are unsure as to how to weave the diverse globalization tapestry into the sport discourse. It can be inferred that journalists either were not comfortable with discussing globalization within a sport context or they simply were unqualified to do so. Overall, it is highly doubtful that this coverage, when it was published, created a more informed readership or had any significant impact on the globalization of sport discourse.

Table 19: 2008 Data: Number of Articles

August 5, 2008 –August 27, 2008				
Search Terms	Olympic or Olympics	Globaliz/sation	Olympic + Globaliz/sation	Olympic + Globaliz/sation¹
New York Times	1,048	25	8	5
Los Angeles Times	513	5	1	1
Washington Post	775	14	3	3
The Australian	1,084	18	2	2
Courier Mail	988	3	0	0
Sydney Morning Herald	752	5	1	1
South China Morning Post	779	9	2	2
China Daily	744	18	8	5
Xinhua News Agency	6,349	15	8	8
Total	13,032	112	33	27

¹ This column represents the actual number of articles reviewed and coded. This number reflects the removal of articles that used the term Olympics as hyperbole, simile, or as a descriptor of any kind. These are the articles that actually discuss globalization and the Olympic Games.

Table 20 shows the article type of each article that contained the words “olympic” or “Olympics” and “globalization” broken down by newspaper. Almost half (48%) of the articles that contained both search terms were news articles (N = 13) while 30% were opinion articles (N = 8). The 2008 dataset only yielded two articles that were coded sport articles and contained both search terms. This lack of attention in the mainstream media is consistent with the lack of attention sport receives from international relations and globalization studies scholars (Giulianotti & Robertson, 2007).

Table 20: 2008 Data: Type of Article (N = 27)

August 5, 2008 –August 27, 2008					
Newspaper	News	Feature	Opinion	Sport / Athlete	Total
New York Times	0	3	1	1	5
Los Angeles Times	1	0	0	0	1
Washington Post	0	1	1	1	3
The Australian	0	2	0	0	2
Courier Mail	0	0	0	0	0
Sydney Morning Herald	0	1	0	0	1
South China Morning Post	2	0	0	0	2
China Daily	3	1	1	0	5
Xinhua News	7	0	1	0	8
Total	13	8	4	2	27

Table 21 shows the frequencies of affiliations/professions of the sources quoted in the 27 articles that contained both search terms. More than 47% (N = 45) of the sources quoted did not fall within one of the 16 predetermined categories. These sources included but were not limited to ‘person on the street interviews’, engineers, business executives, political analysts, teachers, movie directors, and other journalists (both print and broadcast). Chinese government officials (N = 11) and Chinese academics (N = 8) were the predetermined affiliations quoted the most often. This was not surprising considering that the Chinese press published the majority of the articles that contained both search terms. This is also consistent with the Chinese government’s use and exploitation of the nation’s media outlets (Brady, 2008).

The most telling finding presented in Table 21 is the utter lack of IOC and NOC officials quoted in these articles. Not a single IOC official was quoted in the 27 articles and only two Chinese Olympic Committee officials were quoted. This finding indicates

that journalists were willing to accept or at least report academic and governmental interpretations of the Olympic Games and globalization, but were unwilling or unable to contact sources who actively engage in the sport industry, global sporting events, and the globalization of sport discourse. This finding indicates that these journalists were either unable to get interviews with IOC and NOC members or did not consider them to be active participants in the globalization of sport discourse.

Table 21: 2008 Data: Source Affiliation/Professions (N = 95)

August 5, 2008 –August 27, 2008	
United States Academic	7
Australian Academic	3
Chinese Academic	8
Other Nation Academic	1
Coach	5
Athlete	5
Medical Professional	1
IOC Official	0
United States OC Official	0
Australian OC Official	0
Chinese OC Official	2
Law Enforcement Representative	0
Australian Government Official	1
U.S. Government Official	0
Chinese Government Official	11
Other Nation Government Official	6
All Others Sources	45
Total Number of Sources Quoted	95

Table 22 shows the frequencies of Steger's (2009) four dimensions of globalization found in the 27 articles that contained both search terms. As previously stated, each individual article could discuss multiple dimensions; therefore, individual

articles were coded to reflect all the dimensions of globalization that they discussed. In total, the 27 articles discussed the economic (N = 19) and cultural (N = 19) dimensions of globalization the most often with the political (N = 15) and ecological (N = 4) dimensions being discussed the third and fourth most often, respectively. These descriptive statistics support the qualitative finding that journalists in the year 2008 presented a more nuanced understanding of the dimensions of globalization and their interconnected nature.

The lack of discussion regarding the ecological dimension (N = 4) of globalization was unexpected. It is especially alarming when considering the abundance of academic literature (e.g., Cottrell & Nelson, 2011; Close, Askew, & Xin, 2007; Jarvie, Hwang, & Brennan, 2008; Loh, 2008, etc.) that discusses China's appalling environmental record and the concern it inspired leading up to the Beijing Games. This finding suggests that either the mainstream media does not connect sport mega-events to ecological and environmental issues or, if they do, then they do not link globalization to sport's environmental considerations (Jarvie, 2006).

Table 22: 2008 Data: Frequency of Globalization Dimensions Discussed

August 5, 2008 –August 27, 2008					
		Dimensions of Globalization			
Newspaper	Numbers of Articles	Economic	Cultural	Political	Ecological
New York Times	5	1	4	2	1
Los Angeles Times	1	1	1	1	0
Washington Post	3	2	2	2	0
The Australian	2	1	2	2	1
Courier Mail	0	0	0	0	0
Sydney Morning Herald	1	1	1	1	0
South China Morning Post	2	2	0	0	0
China Daily	5	4	3	2	1
Xinhua News	8	7	6	5	1
Total	27	19	19	15	4

COMPREHENSIVE OVERVIEW AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Tables 23-27 display the quantitative data for all three Olympic Games under examination: the 1984 Los Angeles Games, the 2000 Sydney Olympic Games, and the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games. When appropriate, these data are offered in the same tables to enhance readability and facilitate easy comparisons. Table 23 shows the total number of articles in each dataset and the impacts of refining the search criteria when relevant. Table 24 accompanies Table 23 as it shows the real change and percent change in the number of articles published between 2000 and 2008. The 1984 data was not included in Table 24 as none of 4,998 articles from 1984 mentioned the term “globalization”. Tables 23 and 24 provide clear data on how each newspaper’s coverage changed between each of the games.

Table 23 shows that the number of articles mentioning “olympic” and/or “Olympics” increased when compared to the previous games. For instance, there were 5,087 more articles mentioning “olympic” and/or “Olympics” in 2000 than in 1984, 2,947 more articles in 2008 than in 2000, and 8,034 more articles in 2008 than in 1984. Further, the data provided evidence of a “hosting effect” as the Australian and American newspapers (except the *New York Times*) published fewer articles about the games that occurred after the one in their home country. Additional evidence for a “hosting effect” comes from the fact that each of the Chinese newspapers published more articles mentioning “olympic” and/or “Olympics” in 2008 than in 1984 and 2000 combined. The true impacts of a hosting effect are unknown, but it undoubtedly manifests in more ways than an increase in newspaper articles. While it is beyond the scope of this research, the

effects of hosting mega-events is a worthwhile issue that deserves additional academic scrutiny.

Table 24 shows that 2,947 more articles that mentioned “olympic” and/or “Olympics” were published in 2008 than in 2000. This is a 29.2 percent increase in the total number of articles that mentioned “Olympic” and/or “Olympics”. The *Xinhua News* accounted for this entire increase as this newspaper published 4,615 more articles that mentioned “olympic” and/or “Olympics” during the 2008 Beijing Olympics Games (N = 6,349) than it did during the 2000 Sydney Olympic Games (N = 1,734). This is more than a 266 percent increase (See Table 24). Table 24 shows that all three Chinese newspapers experienced a significant rise in the number of articles they published. The *South China Morning Post* and *China Daily* published 735 and 664 more Olympic articles, respectively. These increases produced the largest percent increase with the *South China Morning Post* and *China Daily* posting 1,670.5 and 830.0 percent increases, respectively. The large increases in articles for the Chinese newspapers can be attributed to a “hosting effect”, and one would expect significantly smaller numbers for subsequent Olympic Games. Further, this finding suggests that the Chinese government, which operates the *Xinhua News* (and controls the Chinese press), viewed the Olympics as an opportunity to spread propaganda and enhance China’s brand image.

The Australian newspapers also gave credence to the idea of a hosting effect as the Australian newspapers decreased their article output by at least 657 articles and at most by 1,253 when the 2008 data is compared to the 2000 data. Each of these newspapers experienced a percent decrease that was at least 37.7 percent and at most 62.5

percent. The rapid expanse of the internet and the practice of putting more and more articles online may account for some of the decrease. However, the more likely scenario is that host nations produce additional newspaper articles as hosting the Olympics produces more newsworthy events and the public has a vested interest in the games. Newspapers in the host nation are attempting to capitalize on the Olympics's status and the people's interest. The American newspapers are the only country group that did not all move in the same direction. The *New York Times* and *Washington Post* both increased their article production by 125 and 253 respectively, while *The Los Angeles Times* decreased the number of articles mentioning "olympic" or "Olympics" by 493, which is a 49 percent decrease.

The most surprising finding is the 203.6 percent decrease in the number of articles mentioning globalization. Every newspaper, except the *China Daily*, published fewer articles mentioning globalization than it did in 2000. The percent decreases among these eight newspapers range from 14.2 to 933.3. Overall, this resulted in 228 fewer articles explicitly mentioning globalization, a percent decrease of nearly 204 percent. Given the rapid decline of articles mentioning globalization, even with the 2,947 increase in articles mentioning "olympic" and/or "Olympics", articles that contained both search terms decreased by 14 from 41 to 27—a 51.9 percent decrease.

The rapid decline of articles mentioning "globalization" suggests that globalization—however it was being used—declined in popularity and utility. It is also possible that the confusion over globalization's definition (Hopper, 2006) or a recognition of its complexities has caused journalists to shy away from the term. Further,

it is possible that journalists, who often discussed economic globalization, could have abandoned the term do to the uncertainties accompanying the global economic recession of 2008. While the true reasons for the decrease in the usage of globalization are unclear, it is clear that the term “globalization” and its espoused features and utility no longer appealed to journalists.

Table 23: Combined Data: Number of Articles

Search Terms	Olympic or Olympics			Globaliz/sation		Olympic + Globaliz/sation ¹	
	1984	2000	2008	2000	2008	2000	2008
New York Times	530	923	1,048	33	25	3	5
Los Angeles Times	1,620	1,006	513	22	5	2	1
Washington Post	537	522	775	16	14	1	3
The Australian	306	1,741	1,084	59	18	20	2
Courier Mail	383	2,030	988	31	3	8	0
Sydney Morning Herald	292	2,005	752	46	5	5	1
South China Morning Post	511	44	779	22	9	1	2
China Daily	147	80	744	14	18	0	5
Xinhua News	672	1,734	6,349	97	15	1	8
Total	4,998	10,085	13,032	340	112	41	27

Note: Bold italics identify the host nations' newspapers

¹ This column represents the actual number of articles reviewed and coded. This number reflects the removal of articles that used the term Olympics as hyperbole, simile, or as a descriptor of any kind. These are the articles that actually discuss globalization and the Olympic Games.

Table 24: Combined Data: Real and Percent Change from 2000 to 2008

Search Terms	Olympic or Olympics		Globaliz/sation		Olympic + Globaliz/sation	
	Real	Percent	Real	Percent	Real	Percent
Change						
New York Times	125	13.5	-8	-32.0	2	40.0
Los Angeles Times	-493	-49.0	-17	-340.0	-1	-100.0
Washington Post	253	48.5	-2	-14.3	2	66.7
The Australian	-657	-37.7	-41	-227.8	-18	-900.0
Courier Mail	-1,042	-51.3	-28	-933.3	-8	--
Sydney Morning Herald	-1,253	-62.5	-41	-820.0	-4	-400.0
South China Morning Post	735	1,670.5	-13	-144.4	1	50.0
China Daily	664	830.0	4	22.2	5	100.0
Xinhua News	4,615	266.1	-82	-546.7	7	87.5
Total	2,947	29.2	-228	-203.6	-14	-51.9

Table 25 shows the frequency of each type of article that mentioned both search terms. The 2008 dataset (N = 13) produced eight fewer news stories than the 2000 dataset (N = 22). However, 2008 had seven more feature stories than 2000. The increase in feature articles suggests that journalists, who as the 2008 qualitative supports, were becoming more globalization savvy and were exploring additional storylines. The data show that the number of opinion articles experienced the biggest change as there were 12 fewer opinion articles in 2008 (N = 4) than there were in 2000 (N = 16). This finding suggests that journalists and readers (the 2000 dataset contained five letters to the editor that were coded as opinion articles) were either no longer concerned about globalization or that they were using other media (e.g., the internet) to discuss the merits and perils of globalization. This finding is not a reflection of the Chinese government's media control as its strict censorship (Brady, 2008) was present in both 2000 and 2008. Of particular interest to this study is the dearth of sport articles in both datasets mentioning both search

terms. The data clearly suggest that journalists did not view sport as an object of globalization. Globalization within the sport discourse was not meaningfully explored or debated in either year.

Table 25: Combined Data: Type of Article (N = 68)

Newspaper	News		Feature		Opinion		Sport / Athlete		Total	
Year	2000	2008	2000	2008	2000	2008	2000	2008	2000	2008
New York Times	2	0	1	3	0	1	0	1	3	5
Los Angeles Times	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	2	1
Washington Post	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	1	3
The Australian	9	2	0	0	9	0	2	0	20	2
Courier Mail	3	0	0	0	5 ¹	0	0	0	8 ¹	0
Sydney Morning Herald	4	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	5	1
South China Morning Post	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2
China Daily	0	3	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	5
Xinhua News	1	7	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	8
Total	22	13	1	8	16	4	2	2	41 ¹	27

¹ Five letters to the editor that mentioned the Olympics and globaliz/sation are included in this number.

Table 26 shows the frequencies of affiliations/professions of the sources quoted in each newspaper article in 2000 and 2008. Academics and government officials were the sources quoted most often. A hosting effect can again be seen in both 2000 and 2008. Australian academics and government officials were quoted the most in 2000 (N = 8 and 7, respectively), while Chinese academics and government officials were quoted most

often in 2008 (N = 8 and 11, respectively). Sources outside the 16 predetermined categories accounted for the majority of the sources quoted in both datasets. The most significant findings for this research are the zero IOC and the relative few NOC officials quoted. Only three NOC officials, one Australian in 2000 and two Chinese in 2008, were quoted in the 68 articles mentioning both “globalization” and “Olympic” and/or “Olympics”. Again, this finding suggests that journalist did not consider the Olympic Games, despite its global appeal, within the purview of globalization or that they were unable to get IOC and/or NOC officials to comment. Either way, it is telling that IOC and NOC officials are absent from the globalization discourse. It is entirely possible that IOC and NOC officials, especially in 2000 when the globalization discourse was more contentious, purposely declined to comment in an attempt to shield the Olympics and their organizations from any negative attitudes towards globalization.

Table 26: Combined Data: Source Affiliation (N = 164)

Source	2000¹	2008	Total
United States Academic	1	7	8
Australian Academic	8	3	11
Chinese Academic	0	8	8
Other Nation Academic	0	1	1
Coach	0	5	5
Athlete	2	5	7
Medical Professional	1	1	2
IOC Official	0	0	0
United States OC Official	0	0	0
Australian OC Official	1	0	1
Chinese OC Official	0	2	2
Law Enforcement Representative	5	0	5
Australian Government Official	7	1	8
U.S. Government Official	3	0	3
Chinese Government Official	0	11	11
Other Nation Government Official	3	6	9
All Others Sources	38	45	83
Total Number of Sources Quoted	69	95	164

¹ 15 articles (three news and 12 opinion) did not contain any sources.

Table 27 shows the frequencies of Steger's (2009) four dimensions of globalization found in the 68 articles that contained both search terms across both datasets. In 2008 the economic dimension of globalization was discussed 10 fewer times than in 2000. This finding suggests that the 2000 number may be inflated due to the 2000 World Economic Forum that took place in Melbourne and drew heavy anti-globalization protests just two days before the Sydney Olympic Games. However, alternatively, this finding may also suggest that journalists, in 2008, like their academic counterparts were moving away from solely focusing on the economic dimensions of globalization and starting to account and/or appreciate the other dimensions of globalization. The 2008

qualitative data supports this interpretation as it provides evidence of a more nuanced globalization discussion than was present in 2000.

Table 27 also shows that the ecological dimension of globalization was discussed the least often in both datasets. This was an unexpected outcome as environmental storylines were present in both games. Sydney's Olympic bid received accolades for collaborating with Greenpeace Australia and including an environmental plan designed to mitigate the event's environmental impact. On the other hand, the Chinese government's dreadful environmental record plagued the Beijing Games, and prompted calls for an Olympic boycott. There was significant concern leading up to the Beijing Games about air and water quality. Further, in the years between 2000 and 2008 the environment became a hot-button political and social issue that received significant academic and mainstream media coverage. However, regardless of the environmental storylines that were present in both games, journalists did not link them to globalization and/or to the Olympics.

Table 27: Combined Data: Frequency of Globalization Dimensions Discussed

			Dimensions of Globalization							
Newspaper	Numbers of Articles		Economic		Cultural		Political		Ecological	
Year	2000	2008	2000	2008	2000	2008	2000	2008	2000	2008
New York Times	3	5	3	1	2	4	3	2	1	1
Los Angeles Times	2	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	0	0
Washington Post	1	3	0	2	1	2	1	2	0	0
The Australian	20	2	11	1	12	2	8	2	0	1
Courier Mail	8 ¹	0	7	0	2	0	4	0	3	0
Sydney Morning Herald	5	1	4	1	3	1	4	1	0	0
South China Morning Post	1	2	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
China Daily	0	5	0	4	0	3	0	2	0	1
Xinhua News	1	8	1	7	0	6	0	5	0	1
Total	41 ¹	27	29	19	21	19	21	15	4	4

¹ Five letters to the editor that mentioned the Olympics and globaliz/sation are included in this number.

Discussion: Research Questions

Three research questions inspired and directed this research. These questions, as is typical for investigative research, were developed prior to data collection and analysis. These research questions guided the entire research process. They were constructed to address gaps in the sport management and globalization studies literature, expand sport management's diversity and investigatory range (Slack, 1998), move past traditional sport management theories and paradigms (Skinner & Edwards, 2005), expand sport management's "constrained idea space" (Quatman, 2006, p. 2), and develop applicable "research so that it impacts, and is meaningful to, the various communities that sport management has the potential to touch" (Amis & Silk, 2005, p. 355). It is believed that these questions met several of these lofty goals. The remainder of this section addresses the three research questions individually.

R1. Has the trajectory of the globalization of discourse sport followed the same path as the general globalization discourse?

- Has the frequency of articles specifically mentioning globalization/globalisation increased during each Olympiad?

Closed ended research questions are typically discouraged because they can obfuscate discussion or lead to simple answers (i.e., yes or no) that do not address the root causes of a phenomenon. However, the above research question provides insight as to whether the globalization of sport discourse mirrored the general globalization discourse in terms of its frequency in different countries' newspapers. It was critical to understand whether globalization within the sport discourse was inextricably tied to the general globalization discourse or whether one could flourish if the other waned in

popularity. If the two did take divergent paths, it would suggest that the presence or utilization of globalization was context dependent. Further, even if globalization may have lost status in some discourses (e.g., business), this does not automatically mean that globalization scholarship and theories were inapplicable or problematic for all discourses. However, this was not the case. As the descriptive statistics in Table 23 show, the general globalization discourse and the globalization of sport discourse followed the same trajectory. The number of stories mentioning only “globalization” from 2000 to 2008 had a percent decrease of more than 203 percent while the number of stories mentioning both “olympic” and/or “Olympics” and “globalization” had a percent decrease of more than 51 percent (See Table 24). This suggests that the two discourses are intimately linked, and that their prominence will ebb and flow in unison.

There could be numerous reasons why globalization’s popularity and usage declined between 2000 and 2008. First, the global economic turmoil that began in 2007 directly challenged the espoused economic tenants associated with free markets and neoliberal economic policies—hallmarks of early globalization rhetoric and theories. As the economic crisis spread across the globe, people and journalists may have turned their attentions inward and focused on their own nations. Second, the anti-globalization protests that were so prominent in the late 1990s and early 2000s all but disappeared. These protests brought vivid images of clashes between law enforcement officials and activists, and people were exposed, via media outlets, to arguments on both sides. However, while anti-globalization protests still occur they no longer gather the large numbers they once did or force the globalization debates into the mainstream media. It

appears the days of fighting in the streets over globalization are over. Third, and what this author believes is most paramount is that nobody was ever certain what globalization meant or was supposed to mean—the term remains ambiguous. As Mark Carlton said in his September 15, 2000 *Sydney Morning Herald* article:

This shoving and shouting about globalisation is all very well, and even quite exciting when the blood flows, but I wish somebody would explain exactly what globalisation is. Then I might begin to think about whose side I am on, if that is what we are all expected to do. So far as I understand it, there are two possible outcomes: a) the planet and its peoples will be driven to the apocalypse by the manic greed of ruthless capitalism, or b) the planet and its peoples will find true happiness as free trade spreads its rewards still wider. (p. 22)

This quote suggests that the lack of definitional understanding left people (even interested people) in the lurch. This ambiguity and fundamental lack of understanding of globalization prompted some people to label globalization as the panacea and savior, while others viewed it as the villain and root of all evil. To some it was the magic bullet, the cure-all, but to others it was the newest snake in the Garden of Eden—it was evil. With this colossal confusion, globalization came to mean everything and nothing all at once. Without know what globalization truly meant or symbolized, people simply put it on the shelf, and went looking for more concrete and definable terms.

R2. How was the globalization of sport discourse portrayed in each newspaper's coverage?

- How did the newspapers' coverage of the Olympic Games reflect the dimensions of globalization (e.g., economic, political, cultural, and ecological)?

The data indicated that there were stark contrasts in how the dimensions of globalization were discussed and presented in 2000 versus 2008. In 2000, globalization

was predominantly presented as a unidimensional (i.e., economic) phenomenon that was either the source of a bright and prosperous global future or the epicenter of what is and will remain evil in the world. However, by 2008, it appeared that the other dimensions of globalization emerged as equal considerations in people's espoused conceptualizations; and globalization was considered a multidimensional phenomenon. This was true for all dimensions of globalization except the ecological dimension, as it remained essentially absent from the articles discussing globalization. The lack of ecological considerations was surprising as the environment and environmental concerns experienced a rise in prominence during the eight years between the Sydney and Beijing Games. It is unclear why this dimension lagged behind the others, but it seems reasonable to hypothesize that that was because the mainstream press often overlooks connections between sport and the environment and ecology.

The emergence of the recognition and acceptance of globalization as a multidimensional phenomenon is viewed as a significant finding and one worthy of explanation. While it is impossible to know exactly why people started to think about globalization in more nuanced ways, several reasons seem logical. First, the academic literature had evolved. No longer were globalists (a.k.a., hyperglobalists) the predominant academic voice; by 2008 the skeptics and transformationalists had emerged with literature bases and proponents of their own. Taking cues from academia could help explain the radical change. Secondly, this period saw dramatic increases in internet technologies and internet usage. A *New York Times* article from the 2008 dataset states, "If anything has been a change agent in Chinese society, it has been the Internet. In 2001,

China had 26.5 million Internet users. Today the figure is 253 million, the most in the world” (Yardley Jing, & Yuanx. 2008, p. 1). This unprecedented access to information and connection to other people, even if it was restricted in China, allowed the discourse to evolve in rapid fashion. As more and more people utilized advanced communications technologies (an often-cited feature of globalization), they might have realized that globalization was about more than economics. Finally, in addition to utilizing advanced communications technologies people may have also utilized advanced transportation technologies and traveled the globe. For some, this travel resulted in permanent relocation, after which they recreated artifacts and cultural practices from their original countries and cultures. While the exact root cause may never be fully known, the data suggest that by 2008 globalization meant more than economics and this spurred an entirely new understanding and utilization of a still undefinable term.

R3. How did the globalization of sport discourse within Olympic coverage reflect international/global sport power relations?

- How did IOC and NOC officials discuss globalization?

By far the most unexpected and surprising finding of this research was the complete absence of IOC members being interviewed for articles about the Olympics and globalization. There was not a single instance where an IOC member was quoted and only three instances of a NOC member, one Australian in 2000 and two Chinese in 2008, being quoted (See Table 26). This lack of evidence makes providing a concrete answer to this research question problematic, if not impossible, because the true answer is that they did not discuss globalization in any of these newspapers. The Chinese Olympic officials

in separate articles did not speak directly to globalization, but did speak to the power of the Olympics to help businesses expand their international markets (Yannan, 2008) and strengthen diplomatic ties (Scholar: Gathering, 2008). While it can be inferred that these officials link the Olympics to the economic and political dimensions of globalization, respectively, this gives little indication of IOC's views on globalization, its assumed role, or how it will proceed in the global age. In short, this research did little to lift the IOC's shroud of secrecy or expose its future plans.

However, perhaps, this finding should have been expected as numerous authors have commented upon the IOC's secretive nature and abysmal transparency (e.g., Jennings, 2011; Lechner & Boli, 2005; Forster, 2006). Its absence from these articles may just be another example of IOC members dodging controversial issues and sticking to their claims of the Olympics being apolitical. Whatever the reasons, it appears that the IOC and its members wanted to stay silent about globalization.

Chapter 5: Implications and Conclusions

The following chapter is divided into four sections: practical sport management implications, theoretical extensions, conclusions, and recommendations for future research. These sections provide concrete parallels to and examples of the literature and results applicability to sport management best practices and future research directions. The first section, practical sport management implications, discusses the importance of discourse monitoring, the potential impacts of axial theoretical and popularized social and managerial themes (i.e., globalization). Further, it provides tangible examples of sport management concerns that could benefit from understanding the dynamics of discourse and its interplay with managerial practice. The second section, theoretical extensions, outlines the parallels between the product life cycle and a “phenomenon life cycle” while outlining critical differences and how early developmental stages can impact the maturation and utility of theoretical constructs. The third section provides concluding thoughts regarding the importance of language and precise understanding. Finally, the last section provides recommendations for future research concerned with sport management, globalization, and discourse evolution and utilization.

PRACTICAL SPORT MANAGEMENT IMPLICATIONS

At the conclusion of any research study, it is always good practice to address several questions, particularly “so what?”, “who cares?”, and “how can these findings be applied?” The following section attempts to answer these questions through the presentation of concrete examples of where globalization and discourse could and should

intersect with sport management scholarship and how this should impact sport management strategies and best practices. The following subsections present two examples of sport management topics that should be reimagined or, at least, revisited with conceptualizations of globalization and discourse evolution at the forefront. These topics include sustaining a competitive advantage and industry and demand forecasting. However, there are numerous other sport management fields to which these concerns have applicability. These include (but are not limited to) corporate social responsibility, environmental impacts of sport, sport marketing, security, sport for development, sport development, hosting mega-events, sport tourism, the political economy of sport, sport fundraising, sport volunteerism, and sport and community development.

Sustained Competitive Advantage

Business entities' (including sport businesses) goal is to use their strategic resources in order to develop a sustainable competitive advantage (Barney, 1991). Taken from a board perspective these resources can include anything that separates or distinguishes one firm from another. Examples include (but are not limited to) human capacity (i.e., employee knowhow), organizational culture, proprietary knowledge, brand awareness, capital, leadership, and organizational structure. Sports, as part of the entertainment sector, must compete with any entity that is competing for people's disposable income and leisure time. This is a wide array of entities and firms can include everything from nature trails to movie theaters to music festivals to other sports. Given this vast collection of competitors, sport firms need to constantly reimagine how to create and sustain their competitive advantages.

Critical components of creating and sustaining a competitive advantage include external environmental analysis (e.g., PEST analysis), industrial analysis (e.g., Porter's Five Force Analysis [Porter, 1979, 1980]), and the evaluation of relationships between a firm's external and internal environments (e.g., SWOT) analysis. However, one of the considerations that is often missing from these analyses is the recognition of concept creation and discourse diffusion and power. For instance, if firms ignored globalization when it arrived in the mainstream, then they would have suffered a serious competitive disadvantage. They would have missed the beginnings of a phenomenon that proliferated and dominated much of the business, management, and finance literature for the coming decades. Further, if they would have only acknowledged and accepted the first iteration of globalization discourse, then they would have missed the nuanced understanding of globalization that emerged as time progressed.

In concrete terms, if firms only thought of globalization as an economic phenomenon and did not acknowledge the other dimensions of globalization then they would have had a difficult time creating and sustaining a competitive advantage. While there are many ways to create and sustain a competitive advantage, discourse monitoring (and understanding the evolving nature and power associated with discourse) is one that cannot be ignored. Businesses that do not evolve with a discourse or adjust to their environments often lag behind their competitors, lose market share, and in some cases meet their ultimate demise.

Industry and Demand Forecasting

Akin to a sustained competitive advantage and being aware of the realities of a firm's current internal and external environments are the concepts of industry and demand forecasting (Archer, 1987). Forecasting is predicting the future, while demand forecasting is predicting the market demand of products and services. While simple enough to understand, the actual art of forecasting is often extremely problematic and complex. Forecasting models, refinements to forecasting models, and outright rejections of some forecasting models in favor of others litter the economic literature. In fact, forecasting or predicting the future is the basis for a number of occupations in the financial, governmental, and business sectors. This should be no different in the sport industry, especially considering the number of competitors that are in the entertainment sector.

Forecasting models can be extremely complex, especially with the advancements in calculus-based econometrics, but the one consistent thread throughout all of these models is the importance of inputs or initial data. All models recognize—regardless of their potential accuracy—that the inputs will ultimately determine their utility and applicability. It is imperative that forecasting models include inputs that reflect current market realities and this includes the discourses that are impacting business practices. Put differently, predicting the future is a difficult task that should include a number of contingencies—including the power of discourse. Sport management scholars, acknowledging the uniqueness of the business of sport, should endeavor to develop industry and demand forecasting models that go beyond economic considerations and

capture the sport industry's idiosyncrasies. This is a recognition of all markets being more than economics and an acknowledgment of other forces'—including competing discourses—powers.

When considered from a globalization perspective, forecasting becomes even more imperative as becoming global or maintaining a global presence requires significant capital and maintenance. Predicting global demand or an industry's global outlook must control for the ways that potential markets think about foreign investment and globalization in general. For instance, if a potential market is highly nationalistic or wary of foreign investment then that needs to be incorporated into a company's forecasting model; moreover a good way to understand a potential market's views on the dimensions of globalization is to engage in the discourse surrounding it. As illustrated previously, globalization is a highly contentious set of processes whose acceptance and understanding varies across the global. If a sport entity is looking to enter that market (i.e., constructing a forecasting model), especially considering the intense loyalty that sport often inspires, then it is worthwhile to know how the potential market views foreign companies and what can be done to increase market demand.

THEORETICAL EXTENSIONS

One of the more exciting outcomes to come from this research is its potential application to social science theory creation, development, and understanding. Based on the rudimentary conception of the product life cycle's four phases of introduction, growth, maturity, and decline, is the original theory of a "phenomenon life cycle". Using

the results from the above data analysis one can see a pattern emerge. The 1984 data with no mention of globalization in the mainstream press suggests an incubation stage where a phenomenon is still primarily an academic concern. This means that a phenomenon has yet to enter the mainstream press, but is beginning to be discussed and debated within the academy. Here, a phenomenon will be defined, its initial features established, and its utility hypothesized. Next comes the growth stage where the phenomenon begins to matriculate into the mainstream. Here the phenomenon is still primarily the concern of academia, but it is beginning to be seen in other forms and medias. At this stage, the phenomenological discourse must account for how the popular, mainstream media is treating it. As it proliferates, academics no longer have sole purview of its meanings, usage, and applications.

The third stage, maturity, takes place when the mainstream media (in all its iterations) and academia are both fully engaged in the discourse and refinement of the initial theory. Here, a phenomenon has become accepted, is commonly used to explain events, and the audience, regardless of accuracy, has an understanding of what the phenomenon means to them. At this point the phenomenon has a life of own and is no longer in the purview of academia or the mainstream press (although it will still be present in both). Finally, and where the phenomenon life cycle can deviate from the product life cycle is the decline stage. Every product regardless of its utility will eventually decline. Manufactures will often introduce new features, reimagine the product, or create product extensions to postpone or decelerate product decline. While this happens to most phenomena, it is not necessarily true for all, as there are a number of

phenomena and theories that are just as useful now as they were when they were originally developed. Here, unlike the product life cycle, which resembles a normal curve, one can witness a plateauing effect—indicating a phenomenon’s continued applicability and utility.

The above description sounds simple enough, but, and this is critical, not all phenomenon have the same timeline. Some have years, even decades, in the incubation stage, and this allows time for robust debates, clarifications, the capacity to approach definitional agreement, and for all caveats to be considered. Other phenomenon will slowly matriculate into the growth stage and may have limited exposure in the mainstream media. These types of phenomena are usually industry- or discipline-specific and enter the third stage in limited circles. Phenomenon may exist in the third stage for months or decades as a phenomenon is accepted or rejected. The fourth stage is highly dependent on the previous stages. As the lack of acceptance in the maturation stage or the discovery of new information could facilitate a decline. Decline does not happen at the same rate, and for some not at all.

Applying this framework to globalization is appropriate given the results presented above, and it may help shed light on the question of why globalization has been debated so vigorously for so long. First, it is helpful to think of globalization as a child actor. Child actors do not spend much time in the incubation stages of life before being thrust into the mainstream. Their growth and maturation occur in the spotlight, leading many—but not all—to decline either through their poor acting skills being exposed or through life choices. Now consider globalization, before it could be appropriately defined

and robustly considered it was thrust into the mainstream (i.e., it had very little time in the incubation stage), and was forced to develop in the growth stage. This is problematic for a phenomenon because it creates significant misunderstanding, confusion, and for globalization outright anger. The results from the 2000 Sydney Olympics demonstrate this scenario. Without time in the incubation stage, people were unclear what was actually being discussed. However, eight years later in 2008, it appears that globalization had entered its maturity stage. At this point the academic literature had evolved and other perspectives of globalization had been presented and debated. Further, it appears this more nuanced understanding of globalization, as a multidimensional set of processes, had matriculated into the mainstream so that globalization was being considered from multiple perspectives (i.e., not just economically). Fast-forwarding to today, globalization—no longer a child actor or media darling—has waned in popularity and usage. It appears it is in decline. It is believed that nearly all social science theories and phenomena can be documented or graphed in this way, and discourse analyses is an excellent method to do so.

CONCLUSIONS

The examination of globalization within the sport discourse, while interesting itself, has reiterated the importance of precise language, conceptual understanding, and idea development and utilization. The negative impacts of confusion, ambiguity, and definitional disagreement can be found throughout this dissertation. This constant theme highlights the need for precise language and bolsters this author's belief that words and

how words are used matter as much as ‘sticks and stones’. As the cornerstone of communication, words should be treated with great respect and conceptualized in terms of their potential power. The impacts of poor correspondence, communication silos, misunderstandings, and poor general communication litter the management, business, and organizational studies literatures. All them agree that communication is paramount to an entities’ success.

These disciplines’ literatures and their mainstream counterparts demonstrate how conceptual misunderstandings originating in imprecise language and unclear deliverables cost organizations untold amounts of money and time. When peers are discussing and comparing ‘oranges to oranges’ versus the dreaded ‘apples to oranges’, a number of potentially costly obstacles are immediately avoided. Therefore, it is worthwhile to explore people’s preconceived definitions and notions, pay intimate attention to the precise words being used to discuss a concept, and rectify any disagreements. Scholars and practitioners should endeavor to develop and utilize consistent and precise language in an attempt to alleviate errors that spawned from ambiguity and conceptual misunderstanding. Ensuring conceptual understanding and establishing an agreed upon lexicon should be a chief concern among academics and practitioners alike, as the potential costs of ongoing vocabulary debates is potentially enormous.

Related to constructing and employing precise language is the notion of idea development and utilization. Language and words not only play a tremendous role in how an idea is developed, but also in how it is discussed and subsequently utilized. Regardless of an idea’s potential worth or capacity for advancement, it is useless if it cannot be

explained or if it is explained in a way that confuses or alienates potential utilizers. The connections between precise language and idea utilization need to be salient. Scholars and practitioners should be looking for communication styles and systems that move businesses and disciplines forward and empower people to utilize and build upon an idea in an accessible manner. Organizations and academic disciplines need to share and appropriately utilize ideas and the use of precise language that avoids confusion is the best way to accomplish these goals.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Given the proposed “phenomenon life cycle” future research should endeavor to fill in the blanks—i.e., apply the same research method to the 1988 Seoul Games, the 1992 Barcelona Games, the 1996 Atlanta Games, the 2004 Athens Games, 2012 London Games, and the upcoming 2016 Rio de Janeiro Games. This will allow future research studies to capture the entirety of globalization’s life cycle—using the 1984 Los Angeles Games as their origin point. With this data, a graphical representation of globalization within the sport discourse can be developed, and this can be compared to other discourses—ultimately culminating in a complete picture of globalization. This picture will demonstrate whether globalization is truly on the decline or whether it has plateaued and continues to thrive as a mature phenomenon.

Sport management scholars interested in globalization should continue to study globalization in many forms, and attempt to develop sport management specific theories that incorporate globalization studies and extend to their respective parent disciplines.

Further, sport management scholars should heed the calls of their predecessors and explore methods and fields of inquiry that increase the field's diversity and investigatory range (Slack, 1998), move past traditional sport management theories and paradigms (Skinner & Edwards, 2005), and expand sport management's "constrained idea space" (Quatman, 2006, p. 2). Sport management scholars should attempt to capitalize on the great interest sport inspires outside of academia and use it to be at the forefront of knowledge creation, utilization, and diffusion.

Finally, sport management scholars should engage the globalized sport industry and investigate various best practices, their locations, and their generalizability and applicability. Through this engagement, they should investigate social science research utilization and discover where sport professionals are receiving their information, how they research issues, and, if need be, what can be done to enhance the utilization of social science research findings. For instance, if journal articles and conference presentations are failing to reach sport professionals, then what, within reason, can academics do to bridge these gaps and make the literature an integral aspect of practice and daily operations. This is a call for a more active engagement from sport academics with industry professionals—all in the name of advancing thought and improving sport.

Appendices

APPENDIX A: NGRAM VALUES FOR GLOBALIZATION AND GLOBALISATION 1930 – 2008

YEAR	GLOBALIZATION	GLOBALISATION
1930	1.21 E-08	0.00
1935	3.78 E-08	7.22 E-08
1940	3.65 E-08	3.40 E-08
1945	3.41 E-07	1.46 E-07
1950	5.83 E-07	6.61 E-08
1955	9.81 E-07	1.06 E-07
1960	7.77 E-07	1.11 E-07
1965	1.29 E-06	4.46 E-07
1970	2.35 E-06	2.20 E-07
1975	4.33 E-06	4.38 E-07
1980	6.99 E-06	1.12 E-06
1983	9.27 E-06	1.33 E-06
1985	1.59 E-05	2.31 E-06
1987	3.09 E-05	4.50 E-06
1990	7.99 E-05	1.32 E-05
1993	1.77 E-04	3.94 E-05
1995	2.88 E-04	7.43 E-05
1997	4.85 E-04	1.44 E-04
2000	8.90 E-04	2.74 E-04
2003	1.25 E-03	3.68 E-04
2005	1.31 E-03	3.57 E-04
2007	1.34 E-03	3.44 E-04
2008	1.33 E-04	3.34 E-04

APPENDIX B: ALTERNATIVE GLOBALIZATION PARADIGMS EXPLAINED

Liberalization

Erroneously, liberalization is often categorized as a hyperglobalist, economic-centric perspective that is solely descriptive associated with this paradigm. However, there are also normative aspects. Globalization critics argue that globalization is too often used when pundits, politicians, and journalists (i.e., discourse agents) are referring to liberalization. Liberalization is rooted in Adam's *The Wealth of Nations* (1776) and the idea of the free marketplace (i.e., the 'invisible hand'), and, simultaneously, in John Locke's and John Stuart Mill's 'liberal' philosophies. Thus liberalization is used with a dual purpose—i.e., it has a double meaning. First it refers to the relaxing of borders between nation-states for the easier flow of goods, money, labor, ideas, and people. Second, liberalization signifies the process of the world becoming liberal (in the political theory tradition), and in terms of the acceptance and adoption of liberal values.

Popular discourse treats liberalization almost exclusively as an economic model that calls for relaxing of trade restrictions, elevating the free market's autonomy, and limiting the nation-state's regulatory powers. Proponents (e.g., Õhmar, 1990) of a liberal global economy believe that a *laissez-faire* approach will produce a more encompassing marketplace, facilitate competitive trade, enhance economic growth, and, as a result, reduce social maladies (e.g., poverty, famine, etc.) and promote the sharing of global resources. They believe the market—when unfettered—is rational, inclusive, just, and that it will maximize global wealth—i.e., the greatest good for the greatest number. Supporters point to the creation and empowerment of supranational and transnational

organizations and the ease of global information exchange through technological advancements as evidence bolstering the liberalization perspective.

Opponents criticize the liberalization perspective on a several fronts, but none more notable than the notion that liberalization presents an ideal or utopic version—not a realistic presentation—of global economic relations. They quickly point to the continued poverty in the global South, the marketplace’s instability (e.g., 2007-08 economic crisis) and potential consequences (e.g., unemployment, savings loss, foreclosures, etc.), and the last four decades of liberal economic policies that have ensured its ‘success’. For them, liberalization has produced the greatest good for the fewest number. They argue that even if a liberal economic system—free of regulation—was accurately implemented, it would be destined to fail as global participation is unlikely due to nation-states’ uneven access to and/or distribution of knowledge and resources. True liberalization requires self-regulating markets, rational actors, and a fair and even playing field, but, to opponents, global economic relations are too disordered and littered with irrational actors—making the ideal unobtainable.

Liberalization challengers further state that the liberal global economy is not global, *per se*, as many poor nation-states operate, if at all, tangentially in the global marketplace. They believe these liberal economic policies have placed powerful nation-states and corporations in positions that allow them to unequally influence the system, and forced all nation-states, at corporations’ behest and labor’s cost, to appease corporations’ limited regulatory and supervisory demands. Therefore, instead of helping labor and reducing poverty, workers and their environments can be exploited in the name

of growth and higher corporate profits (Brecher & Costello, 1998). As powerful nation-states (e.g., US and Britain) cement their prestige and status, some claim that economic liberalization is simply the hegemonic West's new imperialism. As Hirst and Thompson (1996) state, "the US remains the only possible guarantor of the world free-trading system against politically inspired disruption, and thus the openness of global markets depends on American policy" (p. 14). If one or a select few countries are determining what is permissible, then other interests are not represented and the end result is just a different iteration of a restricted market—antithetical to a truly free market.

The second meaning encased in liberalization is the ideological process of becoming liberal in terms of the promotion of liberal values and ideals. The philosophy of liberalism promotes and values individual freedom above all else. Political liberalism posits that individuals should be free from unnecessary state intervention and the state's role is to serve the people (i.e., public good). This inherent individualism within liberalism has manifested into two other central values—democracy and capitalism (O'Byrne & Hensby, 2011). Democracy touts the primacy of individual citizenship over the nation-state—i.e., the individual and their rights should be free from unavoidable state intervention and the individual has the right to change the system. Capitalism, similarly, is built upon the belief that individuals have the right to engage with the market as they see fit and, in turn, deal with the consequences—whether good or bad.

Applicable to this research is how the discourse surrounding global economic liberalization and the development of neo-liberal markets was bundled with the large of ideas of individualism, capitalism, and democracy. Economic liberalization champions,

such as President Ronald Reagan and Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher, successfully argued that open markets would pave the way for democracy and that capitalism would produce wealth and alleviate social ills (e.g., poverty, hunger, corruption, etc.). To them, liberalization was intimately related to democracy and capitalism—sharing the trait of individualism. This bundling allowed liberalization proponents to manipulate the discourse and present an economic issue as a social and moral mandate designed to promote the individual and address social issues through the marketplace’s invisible hand. The ongoing pressure—and success—from powerful actors to pursue a global liberal economy is a prime example of how “experts” exploited discourse—a discourse principally regarding economics—to influence political and social policies as well as ideologies around the world. They changed the ideas that were associated with liberal economies.

Polarization

Challenging liberalization, polarization advocates—who are primarily situated in the anti-globalists camp—maintain that the global marketplace is producing a system of exploitation that is increasing the gap between the rich and poor. They agree that a global liberal economy is developing, but do not believe that it is fulfilling its espoused economic or social benefits; they believe current liberal economic policies are helping the rich get richer and the poor get poorer. They see the world as being divided into two classes: rich (i.e., powerful) and poor (i.e., weak). Further, polarization proponents maintain that powerful nation-states, in efforts to maintain their power, will make it

extremely difficult for poor nation-states to become rich because the very mechanisms that created the global liberal marketplace are inherently biased towards the existent rich. Numerous scholars (e.g., Bello, 2004; Kaplinsky, 2005, etc.) have offered the stark contrasts between the global North and South as evidence of this divide—ultimately concluding that the Global South has been marginalized within the international economic system.

Polarization perspectives have their origins in structuralist and dependency theory (Prebisch, 1950; Frank, 1967; Furtado, 1969). Popularized in the mid to late part of the 20th Century, structuralists rejected the ideas that national economies were uniform and that world markets should result in equal exchange and mutual benefit. Rejecting the idea of uniform national economies, structuralists promoted historically specific approaches to examine and potentially address economic development issues. More notably, structuralists sought to position each national economy within larger systems that included major powers (e.g., US), and to determine how they were related and interacted. Early structuralist theorists saw the divide between the rich and poor as the global extension of Marx's theory of exploitation and believed under-development could not be understood—nor addressed—without recognizing that some nation-states are poor precisely because some nation-states are rich and vice versa.

Potentially the most well-known polarization perspective within globalization studies is Immanuel Wallerstein's (1974) world systems theory. Wallerstein posits that the power relations between the industrially-advanced nation-states (i.e., core nation-states) and under-developed ones (i.e., peripheral nation-states) defines the current

capitalistic world system. To Wallerstein, the core exploits the peripheral, and nation-states in the middle (i.e., 'semi-periphery') exploit and are exploited depending upon their position within the system. Wallerstein is quick to point out that these positions are dynamic, citing the demise of the European core powers (e.g., Spain, Portugal, Britain, that Netherlands, etc.), but maintains that core nation-states will always attempt to maintain their position.

Polarization is criticized for over-simplifying the global economy's complexities and structural relationships, and, by extension, international relations (Bergesen, 1990; O'Byrne & Hensby, 2011). Opponents declare that polarization theoretical positions are too focused on international considerations, and fail to recognize transnational and intranational forces, inequalities, and structural divides. Further, critics question the utility of using nation-states as the central actors (Bergesen, 1990; O'Byrne & Hensby, 2011). These detractors claim this approach misses the point of nation-states' declining power and fails to capture the power of supranational corporations and institution. To them, polarization is a byproduct of the capitalistic world system, and the dynamics of capitalism, as the root cause, must be addressed if social and economic change is desired.

Bello (2004) uses polarization evidence to criticize the current economic realities, and calls for an active pursuit of 'deglobalization'—the purposeful deconstruction and active reconstruction of the world economy. Bello (2004) states, "Deglobalization is not about withdrawing from the international economy. It is about reorienting economies from the emphasis on production for export to production for the local market" (p. 113). Bello's ideas are highlighted to demonstrate how the globalization literature continues to

build on previous scholarship, and to reiterate that this literature is still evolving and open to paradigm shifts.

Americanization

Differing from polarization, Americanization is “the process of becoming American, read as the imposition of American values worldwide, through cultural, economic, and political-military forms of imperialism (O’Byrne & Hensby, 2011, p. 2). In the most general sense, it emphasizes and examines how the rest of the world exists in relation to the US, as the last remaining superpower. To these scholars, whether through the exportation of cultural products—which reproduce American values—or coercive military actions, the US is creating a culture of dependency where it maintains a monopoly. A major driver of Americanization is the exportation of culture—including sport—through the American-owned media (Tomlinson, 1991; Bourdieu & Wacquant, 1999). Covering American events and placing America in the spotlight informs people about America and its culture, while eroding, displacing, challenging, or supplanting aspects of foreign cultures. This process does not happen all at once, but is an ongoing process that capitalizes on cultural attrition from generation to generation. Theorists of Americanization point to the US’s support of neo-liberal economic policies, ‘war on terror’, invasion of Iraq and Afghanistan, insolence towards United Nations resolutions, and even things like the popularity of NBA jerseys in China as evidence of Americanization. They maintain that Americanization (i.e., American imperialism) is obstructed and veiled through terms like globalization, liberalization, and polarization. To

them, America's cultural, political, military, and economic power cannot be underestimated, and any attempt to examine global realities has to put America's aggregate influence and power as paramount (Chomsky, 2003; Panitch & Lays, 2003).

The three biggest critiques to Americanization are similar to criticisms hurled at other proposed globalization studies paradigms. First, critics maintain that Americanization over emphasizes the nation-state and its power, and under appreciates the significance of transnational and supranational institutions, corporations, and organizations. Second, they posit that America's power is over-stated. They do not accept that people are bluntly accepting American values; they, rather actively resist them. A third critique is that Americanization proponents ignore the significance of cultures resisting American influence and the impact of large multinational protest against global, albeit American-led, institutions (e.g., International Monetary Fund and World Bank). These critics highlight some important issues that global studies scholars must address. However, it would be a mistake to present a theory of globalization without accounting for the role of the sole remaining global superpower—America. This is also true of the role of emerging world powers (e.g., China) and former superpowers (e.g., Britain, France, Russia). Americanization proponents would claim that, regardless of who or what else is included, America's power is outflanking and more important than its rivals. Critics of Americanization are faulted for not recognizing that the very existence of resistance is evidence of Americanization and all resistance is done through a local lens that is distorted through their global outlook. For example, individuals are not resisting Chile's worldwide influence, they are protesting America's influence because of the mere

fact that the US is having an uneven impact or, at least, perceived to be having one. One does not resist what is not there. While Americanization is West-centric and has some significant drawbacks, it has merit as America's influence cannot be ignored when developing globalization theories.

McDonaldization

It has been more than 20 years since sociologist George Ritzer (1993) released his book *The McDonaldization of Society* and introduced the concept of McDonaldization. McDonaldization refers to the process of global sameness—i.e., organizations and practices from around the world becoming more and more alike. While some may use ‘standardization’ and ‘homogenization’, Ritzer used McDonaldization not to focus on the fast food industry, but to use the industry as an exemplar of uniformity and indicate how sameness has crept into critical social and cultural issues. Differing from Americanization, McDonaldization depicts the process of the world becoming the same, but does not necessarily tie it to one (i.e., American) or even a collection of nation-states. McDonaldization proponents point to the global brands (e.g., Nike, McDonald's, Coca-Cola, etc.) and their ability to shed their American origins and embody the global. They believe sameness can emerge from anywhere and that the push for sameness can discourage creative thought and lead to political suppression. Sameness is not the same as the optimal, as sameness can actually blunt the development and adoption of better operations and solutions.

Ritzer believes McDonaldization is the latest iteration of a historical process that has its roots in Weber's 'formal rationality', Taylor's 'scientific management', and Ford's assembly-line production. He identifies four principles associated with McDonaldization: efficiency, calculability, predictability, and control. He sees these as capitalistic principles that are being reproduced and idolized throughout societies' practices—including governments. The adoption of these principles has dehumanized industry and is now dehumanizing domestic and international politics (Ritzer, 2008). What is worse is that since every university and/or fast-food establishment operates the same—i.e., creates the condition of that's how things are or should be—an inactive citizenry that quits questioning and starts accepting is produced. McDonaldization scholars point out that sameness extends not only to business practices but also to consumer choices—including political choices. Predictable and controllable customers are the most desirable, and the easiest way to achieve this is by the limiting and dismantling of choices. Barber (1995) points out that this approach is undemocratic, exclusive, unaccountable, and unconcerned about benefiting society.

Critics to McDonalization echo similar critiques. First, they maintain that it oversimplifies and treats global change as one-way, and that it does not account for resistance or local power. Second, they maintain global change and global culture are far too complex and McDonaldization does not go far enough to capture the varying nuances of the world. Critics do not believe that McDonladization is impacting all cultural and/or societal aspects, and if it is, they do not believe it is happening at the same rate or intensity across society.

Creolization

Appadurai's (1990a, 1996) work regarding 'imagined worlds' that are constructed through different cultural flows (See Table 5 above) is a prime example of a creolization perspective. For creolization proponents, transformation and global change are not uniform or standardized; they are negotiated and contested through cultural flows. Therefore, culture is not static or homogeneous—it is dynamic and hybridized. These frameworks examine the exchange of people, values, ideas, goods, and practices between cultures under the assumption that local norms and meanings and global interconnectedness are occurring simultaneously and constantly redefining cultural flows (Appaduria, 1990a, 1996; Houlihan, 1994). Central to the idea of creolization is cultural exchange. Even though it may be uneven, it is a two-way exchange that creates new and meaningful norms that are often detached from place. Creolizationists believe that as the world becomes more interconnected, place (i.e., nation-states) will matter less and identity will become more divorced from place. As Tomlinson (1999) states, "the increasing traffic between cultures that the globalization process brings suggests that the dissolution of the link between cultural and place is accompanied by an intermingling of these disembedded cultural practices producing new complex hybrid forms of culture" (p. 141).

Creolization theorists reject the homogenization and cultural imperialism associated with McDonaldization and Americanization respectively. Instead, they see culture as the byproduct of reception, interpretation, and integration—it is the give and take between the core and periphery nation-states (Hannerz, 1996). However, they also

reject those who believe global heterogeneity is only achievable through isolation and separation. To them, the cultural blending found in today's societies provides observational evidence and, as a result, consumption habits are good indicators of cultural norms. Consumption data and the commodification of global products—e.g., sport related products—are, thus, of interest to creolization proponents.

Creolization is not free from critique. Critics state that it merely describes reality and does not critically examine or understand power relations. Other critics, especially McDonaldization proponents, believe that consumer power is overvalued. These critics may accept that global cultural exchange is intertwined with the subjective processes of interpretation and implementation and, therefore, a degree of creolization, but this means little as consumer power has little impact on structural power dynamics. For critics, creolization has a 'so what' issue. It lacks depth, and as a result does little to explain anything beyond everyday realities. Proponents agree, but contend that everyday realities are tremendously interesting and important, as they bring social science research out of established demographics and pre-constructed taxonomies. To them failing to investigate the realities of categorizations and boundaries is the same as perpetuating them. To them categorizations must be questioned and culture, because of its dynamic nature, can, and perhaps should be, unlinked from place and politics (Nederveen Pieterse, 2001; Appadurai, 1996).

Transnationalization

Transnationalization is the idea that contemporary global change is shifting power away from the nation-state to a level above it, and this new power is having an impact on nation-states and their boundaries. This level above may not be global, and these theorists tend to focus on new transnational forms of economic power and political governance. These theorists do not see the world as one place, but rather the perceived reality of a world where international law and transnational organizations are undermining nation-states' sovereignty (O'Byrne & Hensby, 2011). To them transnational organizations and corporations are surpassing nation-state regulation and limitation, and global cities, regardless of geography, are becoming epic centers of cosmopolitan identities and activities (Sassen 1991, 2003). Scholars in this group have produced some of the most revolutionary social science work and may not always use the word transnationalization, but often address many of the same topics. For instance, numerous scholars (e.g., Robinson, 2004; Sklair, 2002) have written about a new kind of capitalism driven by global consumerism—one that is post-industrial, disaggregated, and information-driven. Others have pointed to the increasing power of transnational organizations like the United Nations and the emergence of global problems like climate change that go beyond national boundaries and organizations for support. These transnational organizations are designed to benefit society as a whole, and nation-states have allowed international law to address human rights, the environment, and military aggression. These issues, once solely inside the purview of nation-states, have been positioned at the level above the nation-state—outside of the nation-states' authority—and this, transnationalization scholars

believe, is a new feature of the global age. These scholars all believe that something new is emerging from increased global interconnectedness, that technology is the key ingredient, and that the nation-state is ill-equipped to deal with and understand the changing world.

Critics of transnationalization say its theorists fail to recognize or consider who is driving the new capitalism and who benefits from a transnational global system. If the goal is cosmopolitanism and knowledge, then who is deciding what classifies and to what end? To critics, this paradigm lacks a critical approach, and accepts the new world order as inherently 'good'. Others believe this approach places too much faith in human nature, and that anything new is actually just a new form of exploitation and exclusion. For these critiques, transnational forms of control are just extension of previous forms, and their underlying power dynamics should be examined.

Balkanization

Balkanization presents a less optimistic view of contemporary global change and the world's future. With its origins in the international relations paradigm of realism, Balkanization scholars see the world in constant ideological and political conflict. These scholars believe that political and ideological conflict regarding religion, values, and tradition (i.e., culture) has replaced traditional geopolitical conflict, and that this is exacerbating differences and propelling persistent conflict. Rejecting the liberal claims of liberalization and transnationalization scholars, the espoused accolades of liberal democracy, the benefits of interconnectedness, and the good will of a global society,

balkanization advocates see only disorder and anarchy. This disorder is a direct result of the absence of a single world authority following the Cold War (O'Byrne & Hensby, 2011). To them, conflict has dominated the world throughout history and will continue to dominate it in the future. This conflict is exacerbated when the world lacks a dominant authority, and in short, a divided world disagrees on a great many things (Gilpin, 1981; Huntington, 1997).

As a result of this constant conflict, Balkanization scholars, again in line with realists, see the pursuit of power and self-interests as central to nation-states' actions and policies. They do not believe that the nation-state has become obsolete, but rather that it has been fundamentally altered to deal with post-cold war political realities. It is important to remember that realism invokes Hobbes and sees the state of nature as a state of anarchy. From this perspective, individuals, and (by extension, nation-states) are amoral and value their own self-interest above all else—making the rule of law essential for order.

From them, the future will reflect a world that has separated into blocs, regions, or what Huntington (1997) referred to as civilizations. Huntington's (1997) unique approach examines the whole of history and proposes a paradigm focusing on the relations among eight historical civilizations. He does not see the nation-state as outdated, but rather conceptualizes each civilization as having a core nation-state that pursues the civilization's interests. His multi-civilization approach posits that cultural conflict is inevitable, as cultural identity becomes paramount and is only defined in relation to "the other". Cross civilization interaction and international politics are bound to be conflictual

because they are intertwined with religion, values, and beliefs. Huntington concludes that the only acceptable action from this point is to accept that the world is multi-civilizational and attempt to understand each other without interfering or imposing values. While Huntington's thesis could be criticized for being over simplistic, not accounting for historical/generational attrition, or under estimating the role of power, he offers an interesting way to consider the world, and an exemplar of the balkanization paradigm. Balkanization serves as an essential counter argument to the globalization studies paradigms assuming convergence and homogeneity (O'Byrne & Hensby, 2011). It also paints a darker picture of the future. This future should not be characterized as a new Enlightenment or as a world of harmony, but a future resembling the past—one saturated with conflict and disorder.

Outlining alternative globalization paradigms (See Table 7) serves two purposes. First, it serves as additional evidence of the globalization studies literature's unsettled foundations, contested terms, multidisciplinary nature, and uncertain future. It demonstrates the need to further clarify terms and refine the globalization studies literature. It also illustrates the importance of identifying a paradigm's theoretical legacy in order to avoid confusion and ensure comprehension. Second, it demonstrates the various theoretical perspectives that sport management scholars can apply to research interests relevant to the globalization of sport. These theoretical perspectives could help explain questionable aspects or highlight new conclusions about the globalization of sport. The sport management discipline is distinctively positioned to engage the globalization studies literature and apply it to sport management phenomena and,

ultimately, improve the scholarship of both disciplines. Several sport management scholars have already recognized this opportunity, and delivered some poignant work addressing several aspects of the globalization of sport. This literature review now specifically turns to the sport management-literature addressing globalization.

APPENDIX C: KEY ORGANIZATIONS IN AMERICAN SPORT DEVELOPMENT

Appendix C corresponds with Figure 4 and provides the full names of each key organization in American sport development (Sparvero, Chalip, & Green, 2008).

Key Organization in American Sport Development

Organization Name	Acronym
Amateur Athletic Union	AAU
American College of Sports Medicine	ACSM
Boys and Girls Clubs of America	BGCA
Catholic Youth Organization	CYO
Jewish Community Centers	JCC
National Association of Intercollegiate Athletics	NAIA
Native American Sports Council	NASC
National Athletic Trainers Association	NATA
National Collegiate Athletic Association	NCAA
National Congress of State Games	NCSG
National Federation of State High School Athletics	NFSHSA
National Governing Bodies	NGB
National Intramural Recreation Sports Association	NIRSA
National Junior College Athletic Association	NJCAA
National Recreational and Parks Association	NRPA
National Strength and Conditioning Association	NSCA
National Senior Games Association	NSGA
National Police Athletic Clubs	NPAC
President's Council on Physical Fitness and Sport	PCPFS
United States Olympic Committee	USOC
Young Men's Christian Association	YMCA
Young Women's Christian Association	YWCA

APPENDIX D: FUNDAMENTAL PRINCIPLES OF OLYMPISM

Source: Olympic Charter (2014), p. 11-12.

1. Olympism is a philosophy of life, exalting and combining in a balanced whole the qualities of body, will and mind. Blending sport with culture and education, Olympism seeks to create a way of life based on the joy of effort, the educational value of good example, social responsibility and respect for universal fundamental ethical principles.
2. The goal of Olympism is to place sport at the service of the harmonious development of humankind, with a view to promoting a peaceful society concerned with the preservation of human dignity.
3. The Olympic Movement is the concerted, organised, universal and permanent action, carried out under the supreme authority of the IOC, of all individuals and entities who are inspired by the values of Olympism. It covers the five continents. It reaches its peak with the bringing together of the world's athletes at the great sports festival, the Olympic Games. Its symbol is five interlaced rings.
4. The practice of sport is a human right. Every individual must have the possibility of practising sport, without discrimination of any kind and in the Olympic spirit, which requires mutual understanding with a spirit of friendship, solidarity and fair play.
5. Recognising that sport occurs within the framework of society, sports organisations within the Olympic Movement shall have the rights and obligations of autonomy, which include freely establishing and controlling the rules of sport, determining the structure and governance of their organisations, enjoying the right of elections free from any outside influence and the responsibility for ensuring that principles of good governance be applied.
6. The enjoyment of the rights and freedoms set forth in this Olympic Charter shall be secured without discrimination of any kind, such as race, colour, sex, sexual orientation, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status.
7. Belonging to the Olympic Movement requires compliance with the Olympic Charter and recognition by the IOC.

APPENDIX E: CONTENT ANALYSIS CODE SHEETS FOR ARTICLES

Coder: _____

Name of Newspaper: _____

Date: _____

Category	Code
Globalization Dimension: (If Globalization Related)	1. Economic 2. Cultural 3. Political 1. Ecological
Article Type	1. News Article 2. Feature Article 3. Opinion Article 4. Sport/Athlete Article
Number of Sources Quoted and Affiliation*	
Topic(s)/Theme(s):	
Notes:	

*Source Affiliation:

1. United States Academic	10. Australian OC Official
2. Australian Academic	11. Chinese OC Official
3. Chinese Academic	12. Law Enforcement Representative
4. Other Nation Academic	13. Australian Government Official
5. Coach	14. U.S. Government Official
6. Athlete	15. Chinese Government Official
7. Medical Professional	16. Other Nation Government Official
8. IOC Official	17. All Others Sources
9. United States OC Official	

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